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ABSTRACT

This report presents the work of a seminar that focused attention on the occupational segregation of men and women in developing nations in Asia. Chapters I and II give a summary of the seminar proceedings and the full text of its findings. Chapter III is devoted to five resource papers: "Diversification of Women's Occupations: A Regional Overview" (A. G. Mitchell); "Employment Diversification of Women in Asian Countries" (A. V. Jose); "Family Related Responsibilities of Women Workers and the Diversification of Training and Employment" (I. Wyngaarde-Mahajan); "The Diversification of Women's Training in Asia" (S. Vleer, S. Khan); and "Diversification of Women's Training and Employment: Experience from Selected Industrialized Countries" (G. Goodale). Detailed case studies carried out by researchers in selected countries are summarized in Chapter IV. The countries are India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand. Chapter V contains summaries of country reports of the government participants--Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Thailand. Chapters VI and VII present summaries of papers by workers' representatives for the countries of Japan, Malaysia, and the Philippines and by employers' representatives from India, Japan, and the Philippines. Appendices contain opening addresses of four speakers at the seminar. (YLB)

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# DIVERSIFICATION OF WOMEN'S EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING

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# ILO/JAPAN TRIPARTITE SEMINAR REPORT ON DIVERSIFICATION OF WOMEN'S TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

Tokyo, 8-12 December 1986

Sponsored by
the Japanese Government and the
International Labour Office

ILO Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific
Bangkok

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# PREFACE

Since its creation in 1919, the International Labour Organisation has been one of the pioneers in the movement seeking to attain equal opportunity for women in employment. The principle of equal opportunity and treatment for women workers is embodied in the ILO Constitution and reaffirmed by the Declaration of Philadelphia (1944), annexed to the Constitution.

Problems of women workers have received continued attention by the International Labour Organisation at its International Labour Conference and regional Conferences, with the participation of the workers' and employers' representatives alongside the governments as partners concerned with social and labour issues. Numerous international instruments adopted in the form of international labour Conventions, Recommendations, Resolutions and Plans of Action relate to occupational segregation of women workers in employment and in training, and encourage their employment in a wide range of occupations at higher levels of pay, skill and responsibility. These include the Discrimination (Employment and Occupation) Convention and Recommendation 1958 (No. 111), the Employment Policy Convention, 1964 (No. 122), the Human Resources Development Convention 1975 (No. 142) and Recommendation, 1975 (No. 150), the Declaration of Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers and the Resolution Concerning Equal Status and Equal Opportunity for Women and Men in Occupation and Employment (the International Labour Conference, 60th Session, Geneva 1975), and the Resolution on Equal Opportunities and Equal Treatment for Men and Women in Employment, (the International Labour Conference, 71st session, Geneva 1985). The Asian Regional Conference, in December 1985, also adopted a resolution calling for national measures to promote the employment of women and requested the ILO to give high priority to the issue of equality of opportunity and treatment in employment.

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ILO has been active in assisting its member States in Asia to translate these international instruments into practise through research, exchange of information and experiences, providing advisory services and longer term technical cooperation projects.

As early as in 1930's, measures were adopted by the ILO member States which sought to extend the employment of women in certain occupations through quotas and reserving occupations exclusively for them. Measures of 1980's, however, are intended to open up occupations to both men and women through information, occupational guidance, better education and training, and, assistance in placement. In the past years, numerous industrialised countries have been active in devising innovative schemes to encourage women enter occupations in which they are still a minority. In Asia, growing interest of the member States led the ILO, with the financial support of the Japanese Government, to organise a Tripartite Seminar on Diversification of Women's Training and Employment to review the situation in selected Asian countries and seek measures to overcome barriers caused by occupational segregation. The Seminar and the resulting publication are expected to give a new impetus to efforts aimed at promoting wider work opportunities for both men and women.

I should like to thank the Japanese Government for its strong support. Appreciation is also due to those who contributed to this activity, including the authors and the major contributors of this publication.

S. Nakatani
Assistant Director General
responsible for ILO activities
in Asia and the Pacific

# INTRODUCTION

> "Can you employ any creature for the same work as another, if you do not give them both the same upbringing and education?
>
> — No.
>
> Then, if we are to set women to the same tasks as men, we must teach them the same things. They must have the same two branches of training for mind and body and also be taught the art of war, and they must receive the same treatment."
>
> Plato
> The Republic
> c. 428 – 348 B.C.

Over 2000 years later, occupational segregation by sex is still widespread, deeply rooted, and pervasive. It denies both men and women, the opportunity to enter fields dominated by one sex.

It places women at a particularly disadvantaged position in the labour market: it confines them to a narrow range of occupations at the bottom level of the skill hierarchy; it is a major cause of wage differentials between men and women, and contributes to a weak organisational base in sectors predominated by women workers.

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Plato, "The Republic", translation by Francis MacDonald Conford, Oxford University Press, New York and London, 1959.

It would, however, be too narrow to view occupational segregation solely as an issue of equal opportunity. It is directly linked to effective human resource planning and development.

Girls and women still tend automatically to enter into a few occupations considered to be "suitable" for them, with little regard to labour demand, while developing economies are held back by lack of skilled manpower. Since women are entering the Asian labour market in increasing numbers, how long will it take to saturate the market with the over supply of labour in these occupations? As the cost of education and training is increasing and shortages of funds are becoming chronic, how long can countries afford investing in women's training centres which provide skills in areas where there is poor economic return? What is the opportunity cost of neglecting the full development of half of the human resources available for a country?

The ILO/Japan Tripartite Seminar on Diversification of Women's Training and Employment was organised to focus attention on these issues, to learn from practical experience in Asia and other regions, and identify what needs to be done in future. This publication summarizes the work of the Seminar. It is intended to inform, motivate and inspire a wide circle of people who deal with national social and labour issues to pursue policies and practical measures to combat occupational segregation of men and women. It should be useful to government officials and leaders of employers', workers' and women's organisations.

The work of the Seminar is presented in seven Chapters. Chapters I and II give a summary of the Seminar proceedings and the full text of its findings. Chapter III is devoted to resource papers which introduce the issues involved in occupational segregation, and measures adopted to increase women's access to a wider range of jobs; then discuss individually the issues of employment, training and family responsibilities, and review some of the experiences from industrialised countries. Detailed case studies carried out by researchers in selected countries are summarised in Chapter IV and the country reports of the government participants in Chapter V. In Chapters VI and VII, the viewpoints of the workers' and employers' on the question of diversification are presented.

Among the conclusions which could be drawn from the Seminar, the most important is the need for a long term, comprehensive and coordinated action to reduce occupational segregation, since isolated and ad-hoc efforts are not likely to make a lasting impact. A variety of inter-related measures are called for, starting with those on employment promotion. Strategies and methodology for regular identification of employment opportunities for diversification would be required especially in growth sectors, and training women in these fields. These measures need to be accompanied by education and information campaigns on occupational segregation addressing specific target groups i.e. women and their families, education and training staff, occupational information, guidance and placement personnel, development planners, and the general public. The results of such initiatives will largely depend upon effective cooperation between the manpower planning and training institutions, the placement services, and the private and public sectors. Moreover, to succeed in these efforts, it is essential to create favourable family attitudes and environment which will encourage and support women's choice of non-traditional occupations.

The ILO Regional Office took steps to translate the Seminar findings into practical measures. National projects were prepared in Korea and the Philippines, while at the regional level, projects were designed for South Asia, South East Asia, and for the Pacific island countries. The ILO is also considering how the existing and future mainstream human resource development projects which it supports can help women to gain access to a wider range of employment and training opportunities.

Diversification of women's occupations is expected to remain a key topic for the ILO in Asia both as an issue of equal opportunity and of human resource development.

Ayse G. Mitchell

ILO Regional Adviser for Asia and the Pacific
Women and Young Workers' Programmes

# CHAPTER I

# SUMMARY OF SEMINAR PROCEEDINGS

# SUMMARY OF SEMINAR PROCEEDINGS

## BACKGROUND AND PURPOSE

Despite a considerable increase in the female labour force participation rates throughout Asia, a large majority of women workers are still concentrated in a narrow range of occupations, having low levels of skill and productivity, poor pay, and little job security. The male labour force however, is represented in a wide range of sectors with greater job opportunities at higher skill and income levels.

Occupational segregation by sex has negative consequences not only for women, but also for national socio-economic development in general. It contributes to maintaining substantial wage differentials between women and men, makes women more vulnerable to unemployment and underemployment, and restricts their career development (horizontally and vertically) within the labour market. Occupational segregation is fostered by a variety of factors including inadequate linkages between training and manpower planning; sectoral economic development policies; the nature of education, and training of women; employers' views towards women workers; and lack of adequate occupational information & guidance and job placement services.

In June 1985, the International Labour Conference adopted a resolution on equal opportunities and equal treatment for men and women in employment. The resolution identified diversification of women's employment and training as one of the major areas demanding future action. In December 1985, the report of the ILO Director-General to the ILO Asian Regional Conference proposed this topic as a major theme to be pursued by the ILO in the coming decade in Asia and the Pacific. This Conference adopted a resolution calling for national measures to promote the employment of women, and requesting the ILO to give high priority to the issue of equality of opportunity and treatment in employment.

Since the topic of occupational segregation needed further exploration and discussion, a Tripartite Seminar on the Diversification of Women's Training and Employment for selected Asian countries was organised in Tokyo, Japan, from 8 to 12 December 1986, with the financial support of the Government of Japan and the ILO.

The objectives of the seminar were as follows:

- to strengthen the capacity of governments, workers' and employers' organisations to promote policies, strategies and practical measures to diversify women's training and employment;
- to increase the access of governments, employers' and workers' organisations to information and innovative experiences in diversifying women's training and employment;
- to exchange information and experiences on diversifying women's occupations on the basis of technical co-operation among developing countries (TCDC) in Asia.

## PARTICIPANTS

The seminar was comprised of six government representatives from Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Philippines and Thailand; six case study researchers from India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand; and two representatives each from workers' and employers' organisations nominated by their respective groups in the Governing Body of the ILO. In addition, there were two workers' representatives and one employers' representative from Japan invited at the request of the Japanese government.

There were also ten observers: six from the Ministry of Labour of Japan; one from the Economic and Social Commission for Asia and the

Pacific (ESCAP), who at the same time represented UNIFEM; one from the Ministry of Development Cooperation in Norway; one from a non-governmental women's organisation in Japan; and one assistant researcher from Thailand.

The ILO was represented by an official from the ILO Regional Office in Bangkok and another from the Training Department in Geneva. The ILO also provided three more resource persons from the Asian and Pacific Skill Development Programme (APSDEP); the Asian Regional Team for Employment Promotion (ARTEP); and the Labour and Population Team for Asia and the Pacific (LAPTAP). The ILO Branch Office in Tokyo and the Japanese Ministry of Labour assisted in organising the seminar and provided the administrative support. The list of participants is attached to this report as Annex I.

## PROCEEDINGS

### Opening Ceremony

Mr. Teruyoshi Iwata, Director of the ILO Tokyo Branch Office, welcomed the participants to the seminar and thanked the Ministry of Labour for their cooperation in organising the seminar. He further expressed his appreciation, on behalf of the ILO, to the Government of Japan for their financial assistance. He described how the ILO has been instrumental in the adoption of the resolution and the convention, which promote equal employment opportunities for women. He mentioned that diversification of women's training and employment was proposed as an area for future action to promote women's economic advancement in the ILO Tenth Asian Regional Conference, held in Jakarta in 1985. Mr.Iwata's address is attached to this report as Annex II.

Mr. Tadashi Nakamura, Assistant Minister for International Labour Affairs of the Ministry of Labour, welcomed the participants on behalf of the Ministry of Labour. In his speech he raised the issue of the introduction of new technologies and the implications of occupational restructuring for the employment of women. He stressed the importance of the exchange of information between the Asian countries. Mr. Nakamura's speech is attached to this report as Annex III.

Mr. Hiroshi Tsujino was a guest speaker at the Opening Ceremony as an Employer Member of the ILO Governing Body. He emphasised the importance of the introduction of the Equal Opportunity Law in Japan as part of the governments' human resources development strategy. He reiterated that with this law a new era in personnel management will start, which will have direct implications for the training of women workers. Mr. Tsujino's speech is attached to this report as Annex IV.

A message from Mr. Yoshikazu Tanaka, Worker Member of the ILO Governing Body, was read by Ms. Kumiko Omachi from the ILO Tokyo Branch Office. The message emphasised that laws alone will not solve the problems of women's unequal participation in training and employment, and that trade unions should look more closely into the issue of women's training since this area has been neglected until now. Mr. Tanaka's message is attached to this report as Annex V.

## Introductory Session

After the seminar participants introduced themselves, Ms. Kiyoko Fujii, Director, Women's Welfare Division, Women's Bureau of the Ministry of Labour of Japan, accepted the invitation to be the Chairperson for the Seminar. She explained the procedures and reviewed the objectives of the seminar.

## Summary of Resource Papers

### RESOURCE PAPER 1: Diversification of Women's Occupations, A Regional Overview, by A.G. Mitchell

Ms. A.G. Mitchell, Regional Adviser on Women and Youth Questions, ILO Regional Office for Asia & the Pacific, Bangkok, recalled the Seminar objectives, introduced the topic of occupational segregation by sex and the key issues involved in diversifying of women's occupations. She then explained how those issues will be dealt with in greater detail in the Seminar Programme and in the other resource papers. The Seminar Programme is given in Annex VI.

The paper on the Diversification of Women's Occupations, thus served as a starting point for discussions on the major issues involved in occupational diversification.

The paper emphasised the fact that, while female labour force participation rates have increased considerably in Asia, this growth has been found mainly in a limited range of low paid occupations. This phenomenon, known as occupational segregation by sex, has two characteristics: "horizontal segregation" which confines women to a narrow range of occupations, and "vertical segregation" which restricts them to the bottom of the occupational ladder in jobs with low levels of skill, responsibility, and pay. Occupational segregation is an issue which concerns both social and economic development. Some of the legal factors, socio-cultural values, economic environment and, educational and training factors which may influence occupational segregation were then described.

Diversification of women's training and employment should be seen as a key to expanding the potential economic role of women. Strategies and measures for action to promote diversification were described, such as identification of occupations for diversifying women's employment opportunities; selection of target groups; generation of regular data relevant to occupational segregation; reforms in the education and training systems; and the introduction of flexible work patterns. Campaigns for awareness creation, occupational information, guidance and providing placement services were among the essential measures for breaking down occupational barriers. The importance of pilot demonstration schemes, and the necessity to link these schemes with the private sector, and the employers' and workers' organisations were highlighted. Establishing regular information-sharing and networking through the existing national and regional networks were described.

Emphasising that a practical approach should be taken in the seminar, Ms Mitchell pointed out the results expected, namely the identification of key issues and problem areas, and the action to be taken at the national and inter-country levels. The ILO will then assist its constituents in translating the results of the seminar into a programme of research and practical activities. Ms. Mitchell's paper is included in Chapter III, "Resource Papers".

**RESOURCE PAPER 2: Employment Diversification of Women in Asian Countries, by A.V. Jose**

In his paper, Mr. A. V. Jose from the ASIAN Regional Team for Employment Promotion (ARTEP), provided an overview of emerging employment trends of female workers in Asia, based on labour force participation rates and related indicators such as population growth, age-specific participation rates, employment status, employment by industrial sector and occupational distribution. He questioned whether it would be possible to compare more developed with less developed countries and whether this could lead to relevant conclusions for future employment trends in the latter. He noted that levels of female labour force participation appear to rise with an increase in the development levels of countries. In conclusion, he pointed out that some positive trends in female labour force participation are visible. He emphasised the need for concerted efforts involving government, employers', and workers' groups aimed at improving the skill profile of women which would subsequently contribute to widening the employment range and their absorption into the skill intensive sectors of the economy. Mr. Jose's paper is included in Chapter III.

**RESOURCE PAPER 3: Family Related Responsibilities of Women Workers and the Diversification of Training and Employment, by I. Wyngaarde-Mahajan**

Ms. I. Wyngaarde-Mahajan from the Labour and Population Team (LAPTAP) focussed on the relevance of reviewing and analysing age-specific patterns of the Female Labour Force Participation Rate (FLFPR) in Asian countries, emphasising fertility behaviour, family environment, and, marriage and family responsibilities of women workers. The cross- sectoral employment patterns suggest that planning for women's employment and training should not take women as a homogeneous category, nor should it be cast in the overall framework of training and manpower requirements without taking into account specific target

groups. Instead, such planning requires looking at women workers at specific intervals over their life-span, as they enter, drop out, and re-enter the labour force (sometimes more than once) and relating their participation in the labour force and work patterns to the development of the family over a period of time. Furthermore it seems that because of their family roles and the family environment, women workers tend to choose jobs which are less demanding in terms of time, energy and responsibilities, and which conflict less with their dual role as a mother and a worker. Their upward and horizontal job-mobility may thus be limited. Therefore, human resource development planning which emphasises diversification of training and employment should take the specific characteristics and needs of the different age-groups of women workers into account. The paper also stressed that joint efforts may be needed at various levels: the family (as a micro-level institution directly responsible for the socialisation process of family members), as well as the government, employers, and trade unions. It was mentioned, for example, that support services for female workers could be jointly established by employers and workers. Given the fact that there are serious limitations to the availability of refined and updated data on age-specific FLFPR in several Asian countries, the need for improved data collection by sector and by age-cohort was stressed.
Ms. Mahajan's paper is included in Chapter III.

### RESOURCE PAPER 4: The Diversification of Women's Training in Asia
### by S. Vleer and S. Khan

Ms. S. Vleer, and Ms. S. Khan from the Asian Pacific Skill Development Programme (APSDEP), in their analysis, noted that although there exist no major legal and policy barriers, women still enter mainly traditionally female skill areas. Overall, the participation of women has not only increased in the labour force but also in training. However, this trend is found mainly in customarily female domains. Some positive developments are noted, however, in several pilot schemes that have emerged recently. It was further mentioned that a main problem in developing training programmes for women, is the lack of data and detailed statistical information. Another constraint on women entering "new" skill ones or traditionally male dominated ones is the lack of awareness of planners, employers, trainers, instructors, supervisors, and the prospective trainees themselves of the need to diversify and expand women's training. Therefore, a major component of promoting the idea of women entering new areas or traditionally male dominated occupations should be awareness creation at all levels. The paper is included in Chapter III.

**RESOURCE PAPER 5:** **Diversification of Women's Training and Employment: Experience from Selected Industrialised Countries, by G. Goodale**

Ms. G. Goodale, the senior adviser for training of women workers, ILO Training Department, Geneva, presented a paper on action taken in selected western industrialised countries to reduce occupational segregation by sex. She first reviewed the work of the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP), which, in collaboration with the European Social Fund and the Commission of the European Communities, has carried out ground-breaking work in the field of diversification of women's training and employment. She cited some findings from the CEDEFOP project, which in spite of cross-cultural variations could serve as useful experiences for the Asian region. She also discussed, amongst other topics, women in management positions and their training needs, recent findings on employers' attitudes towards women workers, and the implications of the introduction of advance technologies on the skill and training requirements of women.
Ms. Goodale's paper is included in Chapter III.

## Country Reports and Case Studies : Issues Raised

The government representatives from Indonesia, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines and Thailand prepared country reports, while researchers from India, Japan, Korea, Malaysia, Philippines, and Thailand submitted case studies on innovative training and employment schemes within their respective countries.

The country reports and case studies were presented by country. The following points were raised during a discussion which followed country presentations.

. Women workers tend to be concentrated in jobs with lower skill levels, low wages, and limited employment security.

. Although equal access for men and women to training and employment is provided for by legislation, in practice women do experience many difficulties entering non-traditional occupations.

. There is a need for guidelines to enforce the equal opportunity laws.

. Economic recession was considered an important factor in sustaining occupational segregation.

. Lack of data and unrefined statistical reporting systems pose problems for developing effective training and employment promotion programmes.

. It appears that entry, withdrawal, and re-entry of women in the labour force pose a problem.

. Sex biases regarding occupational choices for women prevail among family members, teachers, trainers, and instructors. Men often have different perceptions of women's job performance than women themselves.

. Self-employment and entrepreneurship development could be functional in diversifying women's occupations.

. There is a need for support facilities such as childcare, maternity benefits, dormitories, and in-plant counselling services to motivate women to enter training for non-traditional employment.

The case studies and country reports are summarised in Chapters IV and V respectively.

## Workers' and Employers' Panels

Following the presentations of the country reports and case studies, the workers' and employers' representatives presented their papers.

## WORKERS' PANEL

### JAPAN

The Japanese workers' representatives Ms. K. Yamano and Ms. K. Kumazaki described the Trade Union National Centres in their country: SOHYO (General Council of Trade Unions of Japan), DOMEI (Japanese Confederation of Labour), and CHURITSU-ROREN (Federation of Industrial Organisations). SOHYO's affiliates are mainly in the public sector, while DOMEI's affiliates come from the private sector.

Japanese workers' representatives emphasised the necessity to promote women's placement in higher positions and to improve their working conditions in traditional occupations. Skill acquisition among women workers should be encouraged in order to equip them to adapt to technological restructuring within the economy. Governments should give priority to training and employing women in new fields. The workers' representatives also underlined the key role of vocational information and guidance in directing women towards science and technology-related subjects and of awareness creation campaigns to remove prejudices and barriers. A summary of the report presented jointly by SOHYO and DOMEI is included in Chapter VI.

### MALAYSIA

The Malaysian workers' representative, Ms. T. Pathma, emphasised the need to eliminate discrimination in employment based on sex and/or marital status. She questioned attitudes which threatened women's right to work and which propagate traditional views about their roles. She stressed the promotion of equal opportunities and equal rights in the world of work as a means of making gainful employment compatible with family and household responsibilities. Further, she mentioned that equal rights and equal opportunities for women and men could foster greater participation of men and women in trade union work.

A detailed programme of action taken in pursuit of these objectives involving the government, employers, and workers as was mentioned in Ms. Pathma's paper has been summarised in Chapter VI.

## EMPLOYERS' PANEL

### INDIA

The Indian employers' representative, Mr. V.B. Mahatme, indicated that it was necessary to test empirically the widespread belief that productivity of women is lower than that of men. Special attention should also be paid to their training, and family welfare programmes. He emphasised ways and means of promoting entrepreneurship among women by providing the following assistance:

- conducting appropriate surveys to identify areas of self-employment;
- familiarising a selected target group with the procedures and formalities in securing job orders;
- providing intensive skill training;
- providing collaboration with other organisations for managerial training and counselling required for business start-up programmes;
- providing guidance in securing assistance from various governmental/semi-governmental agencies connected with the development of small enterprises, and,
- identifying areas in villages and small townships where women can receive skill and business training and motivation courses.

Mr. Mahatme's paper is summarised in Chapter VII.

### PHILIPPINES

The Philippines Employers' Representative, Mr. A. Tan, noted that the reason for under-representation of women in certain areas of

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employment is not sex-based discrimination. Lack of skills and initiatives has often resulted in their under-representation in non-traditional areas of employment.

In order to promote the diversification of women's training and employment opportunities, the following action could be taken:

- Data-gathering of the areas of employment in which women are under represented, and of those which are "attractive" to female workers;
- Participation of the employers' organisations in this survey, and the dissemination of information to their affiliates;
- Programmes to raise the awareness of women to take up non-traditional occupations in conjunction with population programmes.
- Prioritising employment generation and entrepreneurship development through ILO's Improve Your Business Programmes in the rural areas.
- Concentration on horizontal advancement of opportunities for women rather than on "vertical diversification", since in the private sector, vertical mobility is based on merit.

Action should not be taken exclusively in the industrial sector or formal sector of employment. The greatest need and possibilities for maximising employment opportunities for women lie in the informal sector, in the form of part-time work and small-scale entrepreneurial schemes. The paper of the Philippines Employers' Representative is summarised in Chapter VII.

## Group Work

Based on the major topics identified by the participants, guidelines for group discussion were designed. The participants were then divided into three working groups to consider, inter alia, the following issues:

- Creating the essential conditions for the diversification of women's training and employment;
- Training strategies and interventions;
- Creating links to employment;
- Networking aimed at diversification of training and employment on national and regional and national levels.

The discussion in the working groups proceeded on the basis of the papers presented during the seminar, and the personal experiences of the participants. A wide range of issues raised are summarised below. These points and research proposals arising from groupwork are given in detail in Chapter II "Findings of the Seminar".

Governments, workers, and employers as social partners, have a joint commitment to the expansion and diversification of women's job opportunities. This commitment should be expressed in policy and in practise by the social partners encouraging women to hold positions at senior level in their organisations.

While several countries had a constitutional safeguard against discrimination based on sex, some did not have specific equal opportunity legislation. It was felt that in these countries, it may be necessary to work towards the adoption of such a legislation. Other countries had anti-discrimination and equal opportunities laws, but these were not effectively enforced, hence better enforcement strategies were necessary.

Primary importance was attached to the need for generating data base to identify precisely the nature and extent of occupational segregation in employment and training and the sectors where changes could most easily take place. This would call for a methodology to systematically identify "non-traditional" occupations and sectors in which women's entry could be encouraged. Such work could be linked to the human resources planning and development programme of each country involving researchers, planners, trainers, employers and trade unions.

A regular link between employment, education and training of women, and occupational information and guidance was considered critical. Systematic information would need to be generated and disseminated on manpower shortages to assist educational planners, teachers, trainers and guidance counsellors to direct women to areas of manpower demand. The collaboration between manpower planners, public employment services and education and guidance staff in generating and disseminating such information, regularly and accurately, was necessary.

On the basis of such information and data, action programmes at country level could be developed to diversify women's employment and training, with inter-country networking to share experiences regularly.

The major groups which could be targeted for diversification programmes include, not in order of priority:

- school leavers
- illiterate women (in both rural and urban areas)
- women in the informal sector
- women with low-skills in the formal sector
- school girls with good academic records and high motivation
- women in employment with demonstrated supervisory, managerial, or technical abilities.

Girls tend to choose subjects such as arts, humanities, social sciences, etc., leaving mathematics and the sciences to boys. As a result, after high school, few girls have the requisite qualifications for higher education in subjects like engineering, medicine, etc. The selection of humanities only by girls and science by boys should be discouraged. Policies could be framed requiring equal emphasis on the study on certain subjects by both boys and girls. In countries which have separate schools for boys and girls, emphasis should be placed in girls schools on teaching science and mathemtics. Such policies were required at each stage of the education and training system.

High school teachers and student counsellors needed training and sensitising on issues of diversification, to enable them to give unbiased counselling and direct female students to wider options for their future education and employment.

Measures to help women to enter "non-traditional" occupations, includes vocational and technical training in new areas, management, and supervisory level training, entrepreneurial training for women in the informal sector, training in running co-operatives, mid-career training.

In addition to the existing training programmes organised by the government and private and public sector enterprises, the trade unions could also introduce training programmes for women in non-traditional areas. Efforts could also be made to set up training jointly by the government and private sector on a cost sharing basis. Scholarships and loans could be given to provide incentives to women to take up professional or technical education and to direct their training into non-traditional areas.

Training facilities for rural women at the grassroots level, would have to be specifically designed to diversify their work opportunities.

Considering the existence of trade skills tests in some ASEAN countries, the importance of credentials and certification were emphasised in facilitating entry into employment and in diversifying women's training and employment. Setting of skill standards and certification could serve as tools for achieving equal treatment in employment.

Since training has to be linked to employment, training institutions could collaborate in the placement of women trainees in non-traditional occupations by the employment services. Government and public sector enterprises should take a lead in employing female trainees who successfully complete training in non-traditional occupations. For example women with the necessary training and work experience can be employed as instructors at government training institutes.

To promote the vertical mobility of women, joint action by trade-unions and employers could be taken to ensure that some women employed in less-skilled, lower-paid occupations, be trained in higher skills needed by the firm, with a commitment from the employer to re-employ them at a higher level. Various ways of encouraging employers to train and employ women in non-traditional occupations, for instance by offering tax concessions for limited periods, could be explored. The social partners might also consider encouraging promotion of in-plant counselling for female employees to enhance job commitment and expand career opportunities.

Since women are still largely responsible for domestic work and child rearing, their entry into the labour market in large numbers calls for urgent measures which would decrease the burden of household chores such as childcare services, transport, canteens providing nutritious meals at reasonable prices, and home catering. In some countries childcare facilities were financed by employers or the government. Various forms of childcare services could be explored such as family, community, or enterprise based as well as cost sharing by the government, employers and the workers. The private sector could also be encouraged to open childcare services as commerical ventures. However, the quality of care offered by these services should be subject to standards and scrutiny by the Government. Increasing entry or return of women to the labour market also called for measures to achieve a more equitable sharing of responsibilities within the family.

To enable women to combine their domestic and work roles, flexible and part-time employment and worksharing could be promoted. This, however, could put women at a disadvantage because of low wages and deprive them of protection available under various labour laws. In order to protect the rights of women wishing to take up part-time or flexi-time work, trade unions should be encouraged to organise such women and take up their cause.

In order to creat a favourable environment for the diversification of women's training and employment, fostering of consciousness and awareness among the specific target groups and the public at large were of the utmost importance. The groups discussed the importance of the media and the impact of programmed messages at specific periods when specific target groups would be most receptive.

The most important target groups for such awareness creation would be young girls, and their family members. The press, television, radio, theatre, and indigenous media like street-plays and puppet shows could be used to create such awareness. Programmes could highlight achievements of women in non-traditional fields, showing them as role models. Stories based on folklore and local literature, which portray women as achievers rather than only nurturers, could be selected.

Since persuasion would have to be gentle in order to be effective, women who have successfully combined the role of home-maker with the role of income-earner in a non-traditional field be portrayed by media as role models. The media could also be used to emphasise the importance of the father's role in the education and upbringing of children. In some countries, sons are preferred to daughters because sons are customarily expected to look after the parents in their old age. Therefore, families placed greater emphasis on the careers of their sons than those of their daughters. However, frequently daughters were supporting their parents. Such instances could be publicised by the media in order to help change traditional attitudes regarding the potential of daughters.

Among civil servants, particularly planners, policy makers and persons dealing with training and employment, sensitisation to women's issues relating to the need for diversifying women's employment is also necessary. Awareness can be achieved by including this topic in regular in-service training programmes, seminars, workshops etc.

In most countries there is no focal point for the promotion and coordination of action at the country level for women's training and employment in non-traditional occupations. Designation of an existing organisation as a focal point is necessary to promote diversification of women's occupations. The form of this body would, however, differ from country to country.

## Field Visit to the Akabane Vocational Training Centre, Tokyo

A visit was organised to the Akabane Vocational Training Centre to observe how the Government of Japan organises its institution-based vocational training, and to obtain information on the participation of women in such training programmes.

The Akabane Vocational Training Centre was established under the jurisdiction of the Tokyo Metropolitan Government for the purpose of providing vocational training required by industries in an era of advanced technology. The centre is operated by a staff of a hundred and eight, including seventy eight part-time instructors. The total budget for the centre in 1985 was 263 million yen (approx. US$1.8 million) excluding building and land cost.

Specialised training available at the centre is listed below:

a) Refrigeration and Air-conditioning
b) Electricity
c) Surveying
d) Offset Printing
e) Preparing Business' Documents
f) Phototypesetting
g) Photo Mounting
h) Real Estate Business

For courses (a), (b) and (e) both, day courses and evening courses are available. Courses (c), (d), (f) and (g) are day courses, while course (h) is an evening course.

The training period for the first four fields is one year, while for the others the duration is six months. Enrolment takes place in April for the one-year courses, and in both April and October for six-month courses. The total number of places available for each course is thirty. Applicants are interviewed, and requested to take aptitude tests. For day courses (a), (b), (c) and (d), simple tests are given in Mathematics and Japanese.

Although all courses are open to both males and females, women's enrolment tends to concentrate in specific fields. The selection of the field for training is left solely to the applicants.

The training is free and there are assistance programmes for trainees receiving vocational training in the form of vocational training allowance and extension of unemployment benefit up to the end of the training period. A job placement service is offered at the end of training in close cooperation with the Public Employment Security Office.

An afternoon session of the seminar was set aside for discussions of the field visit. It was noted that the training programmes were open to both men and women and it was considered that this gave equal access and opportunity to women. The women trainees, however, did not enter training in areas which traditionally were closed to them, and the centre did not specifically maintain a policy of diversifying women's training and employment.

## Adoption of the Seminar Report

The draft report, including the findings of the seminar, based on the discussions, and ideas and approaches of the three working groups was adopted at the Plenary session. The detailed findings are given in Chapter II.

## Closing Session

Presiding over the closing session was Mr. S. Takahashi, Director of the International Affairs Division, Ministry of Labour, Japan. He congratulated the participants on the successful deliberations, findings,and valuable conclusions of the meeting. He had no doubt that all participants would try to put to effect the findings and conclusions on return to their respective countries, and act as catalysts with national organisations which can assist in efforts to diversify women's employment and training opportunities. On behalf of the Ministry of Labour, he pointed out the need to actively pursue the issues involved in creating equal opportunities in employment and training for female workers. In fact, the above mentioned agency had already taken action in enacting the Equal Employment Opportunity Law in April 1986. He also extended his gratitude to the Chairperson for her excellent work and the Secretariat, the resource persons from ILO, the case-study writers, the national representatives, and the workers and employers' representatives for their contributions to the meeting's success.

Ms. Srinuan Komolavanij, speaking on behalf of the government participants, observed that much had been achieved in a week's deliberations, and said she was convinced that participants would agree with her that everyone had been able to get a clearer outlook on the issues involved in diversifying women's training and employment opportunities. She thanked the ILO and the Japanese Government for having extended an invitation to her as a representative of Thailand.

Mr. Tan, who spoke on behalf of the employers, thanked the ILO and the Japanese Government for organising the seminar. He noted that the Seminar's deliberations had contributed to an awareness of the role employers' organisations could have in diversifying job opportunities for women.

Speaking as a workers' representative, Ms. Pathma reiterated that workers' organisations certainly need the employers' and governments' cooperation in their efforts to diversify women's job opportunities. She also stressed that commitment from women workers themselves is a prerequisite for achievements in this area. She expressed appreciation for ILO's lead role in addressing the issue of job diversification. She also thanked all the participants for their enthusiasm displayed during the meeting.

In her concluding remark, Mrs. A.G. Mitchell, on behalf of the ILO, thanked the Government of Japan for its financial assistance and providing facilities for hosting the meeting. She further thanked Ms. Fujii, the Chairperson, for her able and effective handling of the meeting, as well as the officials of the Ministry of Labour in Japan for their excellent support, which greatly contributed to the smooth functioning of the seminar. She noted that the interest shown in the discussions had been most rewarding, and she congratulated the participants on the results achieved. She mentioned that, as a follow up, ILO and its regional teams, ARTEP, APSDEP, LAPTAP and ARPLA, will proceed to translate seminar findings into practical action. Already ILO has started to investigate ways to diversify women's occupations through its on-going technical cooperation projects and is ready to assist the countries in addressing the issue of occupational segregation. Finally, she expressed her gratitude to Mr. T. Iwata, Mr. K. Yanagawa, Ms. K. Omachi, and other staff members of the Tokyo Branch Office as well as to the officials from the Ministry of Labour for their unfailing support.

# CHAPTER II

# FINDINGS OF THE SEMINAR

# FINDINGS OF THE SEMINAR

Based on the discussions and analysis of the background papers, country reports, case-studies and reports presented to the plenary by the discussion groups, the seminar participants arrived at the findings detailed below. Starting from a diversity of views, areas of common concern were discerned. The findings of the seminar are intended to serve as a framework for national action and regional support. Taking into account the great diversity of the social, cultural, economic, and political factors in the Asian region, the findings and consequently, the measures based on these findings, must be applied with flexibility and sensitivity. In this regard, they would be adapted to the conditions specific to each country's socio-cultural and economic context.

The findings have been arranged in the form of a matrix for the sake of clarity in identifying action at different levels. It is unlikely that any action taken in an adhoc and isolated manner would have an impact in solving problems of such magnitude and pervasiveness as those involved in occupational segregation.

The complexity of the problem of occupational segregation by sex demands an integrated approach requiring action at the policy level and mechanisms for its implementation and enforcement. The need to increase the awareness of the women themselves, along with that of their families and community peers, is of equal significance as is the need to increase the awareness of planners, instructors, practitioners, employers, and workers.

The seminar participants were in full agreement that the family is the basic unit in Asian societies and, therefore, efforts should be taken to strengthen its socio-economic base. In this regard, the diversification of women's training and employment is seen as a key to expanding the potential economic role of women within the family and society. This is even more pressing in view of the rapid economic and technological change which the Asian region is currently experiencing.

## FINDINGS

| Suggested Area of Action | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| Policy on Occupational Segregation | . Introduction of laws on equal opportunities for women in employment and training.<br>. Inclusion in national development plans of specific provisions for equal access to employment and training opportunities.<br>. Strict enforcement of existing policies and laws on equal opportunities. | Government. |
| Data Collection and analysis | . Collection of gender-specific statistics and information on training and employment and development of indicators of women's employment situation.<br>. Modify methods of data collection to ensure accurate reporting on women's participation in training and employment.<br>. Regular identification of sectors and occupations offering opportunities for women to enter areas which are new and non-traditional for them.<br>. Develop methods of up-dating, evaluating, and standardising data.<br>. Active involvement of women in the data collection process. | Government,<br>NGOs,<br>Workers,<br>Research Institutes,<br>Universities. |
| Research | . A number of research areas have been identified as indicated in a list at the end of this matrix. | NGOs<br>Government,<br>Research Institutes,<br>Universities,<br>Employers. |

| Suggested Areas of Action | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Orgainisations |
|---|---|---|
| Guidance and Counselling | . Peer counselling e.g. secondary level student counsellors.<br>. Schools and training centers: Improve career guidance programmes by re-training counsellors; providing appropriate materials and improving information on employment opportunities.<br>. Develop enterprise-based job counselling for women.<br>. Extension of occupational counselling to the grassroots level. | Ministry of Education,<br>Ministry of Labour,<br>Employers,<br>Ministry of Rural Development,<br>Local Government,<br>NGOs. |
| Job Placement | . Expansion of public employment services at all levels.<br>. Retraining of placement officers on occupational segregation by sex.<br>. Provision of appropriate employment information to placement officers.<br>. Increase the linkages between employers, education and public placement services so as to increase the availability of information on employment opportunities and requirements to women. | Government, Employers and Workers' Organisation. |
| | . Promotion of placement by training institutions | Government, Training institutions. |

| Suggested Areas of Action | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| Coordination of Training and Employment | . Creation of an inter-agency coordinating committee including, Planning Ministries, Ministries of Labour, Education, Social Affairs, Workers and Employers, relevant NGOs etc. | |
| Creation of Awareness | . Directed at target groups:<br>- Youth particularly girls<br>- Women themselves<br>- Family members<br>- Educators and trainers<br>- Job placement officers<br>- Employers<br>- Workers<br>- Policy makers<br>- Public at large<br>. Mechanisms:<br>- Media: print, non-print and indigenous methods (theatre etc.)<br>- Development and implementation of an intensive media campaign.<br>. Change the portrayal of women in text books and school curricula, specifically to highlight achievements of women in non-traditional fields.<br>. Trade unions and employers' organisations to encourage women to assume high level positions. | Ministries of Education, Information, Culture, Labour, and Workers Organisations. |

| Suggested Areas of Action | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| Infrastructural Support | . Establishment of daycare centres by:<br>- the government<br>- the trade unions<br>- the employers<br>- jointly by the government, employers and workers<br>- as private commercial ventures by women<br>- various non-governmental organisations, particularly women's organisations. | Government,<br>Trade Unions,<br>Employers<br>Women Entrepreneurs,<br>NGO's,<br>Training Institutions. |
| | . These facilities could be family-based, community-based, enterprise-based, or at locations easily accessible to large number of women workers such as in industrial estates. | |
| | . Education and training of women responsible for running day care centres. | |
| | . Promotion of measures,to decrease the burden of household chores such as: home catering, canteens, etc., by non-governmental organisations or individual women entrepreneurs. | |

| Suggested Areas of Action | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| Flexible Employment Patterns and New Forms of Work Organisations | . Linkage between workers' organisations and employers' organisations for the introduction of:<br>- flexi-time employment,<br>- part-time employment,<br>- work sharing,<br>- extended parental leave enabling women to leave employment temporarily and return to work,<br>- inter-enterprise job rotation (as practiced in Japan),<br>- enactment of labour legislation to protect home-based, part-time and flexi-time workers,<br>- organisation and legal education of these categories of workers. | Employers, Governments, Workers Organisation. |
| Financing of Training | . Search for possibilities to undertake training as joint venture, on a cost sharing basis.<br>. Encourage trade unions to take up training programmes in non-traditional areas.<br>. Grants, stipends, scholarships, and loans to women entering non-traditional training and education.<br>. Provision of subsidies and tax incentives to enterprises for training especially on-the-job training in non-traditional occupations. This could be also used during a limited period to motivate employers to employ women in non-traditional occupations. | The Government, Private Sector, Government. |

| Suggested Areas of Action | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| Regional Networking Aimed at Diversification Training and Employment | . Inter-country exchange of fellows or experts (both men and women).<br>. Organisation of meetings and seminars for the exchange of experiences and information among participating countries in the region.<br>. Inventory of experts at the regional level, both men and women, in various disciplines as resource persons for regional consultations, meetings, and training.<br>. Coordination among international organisations. | Participating Countries |

Action by Target Group

| Target Group | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| Women heading households | . Subsidised vocational training for those who are unskilled | Ministry of labour through the Women's Employment Assistance Centres,<br>Ministry of Labour through the Employment Centres, and<br>Vocational Training Centres. |
| | . Financial incentives to enterprises by government | |
| | . Provision of career/occupational, and employment counselling | |
| | . Provision of information on occupations and Job vacancies and development of various types of occupational information materials | |
| | . Use of mass media both printed and non-printed as a continuing activity, to disseminate information on training, educational, and employment opportunities to both urban and rural female household heads through: | |
| | - Coordination and cooperation with other ministries and the media industry; | |
| | - The use of extension workers. This strategy calls for the re-training of extension workers in both content and process (e.g. what information to disseminate, communication skills and methodology) | Government and NGOs working in rural areas. |

Cont'd

Action by Target Group

| Target Group | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| Young girls | | |
| - Primary and Secondary school students | . Inclusion in the curriculum of work-related concepts and options<br>. Provision of vocational skills training in various forms such as in-plant training and apprenticeship. | Ministry of Eduction,<br>Ministry of Labour |
| - High school graduates especially those who are motivated | . Provision of occupational information such as on training opportunities.<br>. Use of teachers in occupational information dissemination to help minimise mismatch in labour demand and supply.<br>. At the Ministerial level, the creation of an Inter-agency Consultative Committee composed of the Ministers of Education and Labour, Manpower Development Director, and a representative of the employers group to draw-up a plan of actin on traning and employment policies; and continuing meetings of the Committee.<br>. Organisation of a committee to review and modify existing curricula in such a manner that the present male/female curricula be integrate into one.<br>. Career guidance and counselling to be provided. | |

Cont'd

Action by Target Group

| Target Group | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| Early school-leavers, dropouts | . Provision of information on training & work opportunities.<br>. Access to skills training and follow-up.<br>. Placement assistance.<br>. Training in self-employment. | Ministry of Labour,<br>Ministry of Social Welfare. |
| Rural women and women in the urban informal sector | . Introduction, evaluation and support of economic activities of women.<br>. Training of women in mechanised farming or farm technology to raise their level of skills and enhance the diversity of their production.<br>. Develop programmes for women with low levels of literacy<br>. Development of a programme of enterpreneurship training to include:<br>- production skills<br>- credit facilities and its use<br>- marketing skills<br>- basic management skills<br>- small enterprise development among women through mobile training<br>- development of self-reliance and initiative among women | Ministry of Labour,<br>Agriculture,<br>Rural Development & Cooperatives,<br>NGOs', Research Institutes,<br>Employers |

Cont'd....

## Action by Target Group

| Target Group | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
| Women re-entering the labourforce | . Incentives for companies who re-employ women who wish to return to work after a long period of absence.<br>. Provision of information on occupations, training, retraining (entry level training and skills upgrading), education, and employment opportunities. (Retraining where advanced technologies have been introduced.)<br>. Policy on skills' upgrading of women re-entering the labour force.<br>. Training for self employment. | Employment Centres, Ministry of Industry, Ministry of Labour. |
| Women entering the labour force for the first time at an advance age. | . Policy on the abolition of age requirement for the recruitment of women.<br>. Self employment training. | Relevant Ministry, NGOs, and Employers' Organisations. |

Action by Target Group

| Target Group | Programme of Action | Suggested Responsible Organisations |
|---|---|---|
|  | . Organisation of women in groups, including in cooperatives, if appropriates, to provide services such as catering, janitorial services, messenger (courier) services, etc.<br>. Enterpreneurship training (at start-up level) to include production skills, decision making skills, management skills. |  |
| Professional Women | . Policy on opening up management positions to women, & promotion of women's upward mobility.<br>. Provision of management training to women supervisors and middle managers.<br>. Assertiveness training for women managers.<br>. Development of the corporate behaviour and image among women supervisors and managers.<br>. Dissemination of materials on successful women managers through publications.<br>. Creation of public awareness of women's management capability and potential.<br>. Creation of equal orportunities environment within the worksite to improve the status of women workers. | Governments, Employers', and Workers' Organisations. |

## RESEARCH PROPOSALS

As part of the seminar findings, the participants also reviewed areas in which research was required. These included the following themes:

. Occupational segregation by sex: the identification of sectors and occupations for diversification and the factors contributing to such inequalities.

. Identification of barriers to the entry of women into specific male-dominated occupations.

. Identification of newly emerging growth occupations, and the constraints on women's entry into these occupations.

. Women in non-traditional occupations: how they adapt within the workplace and the home, and the attitudes of family members, fellow workers, and management.

. Factors influencing the changing patterns of women's employment, and the effect on women's economic and social status.

. Existing training policies and programmes for diversifying women's occupations and on methods of evaluating their effectiveness in terms of employment and income.

. Studies on different forms of childcare services which respond to the needs of working women.

. Studies of indigenous savings and credit schemes accessible to women, and the economic behaviour of female entrepreneurs.

. Research on women in management, their career profiles and their training needs.

# CHAPTER III

# RESOURCE PAPERS

# DIVERSIFICATION OF WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS : A REGIONAL OVERVIEW

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## INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this paper is to serve as a starting point for discussion of major issues related to occupational segregation based on sex, and on measures to diversify women's employment and training in an effort towards having a more equitable distribution of women in the labour force and an effectively developed and utilised female manpower.

For the sake of brevity, few examples are included and there are inevitably many generalisations. The diversity of the needs and problems in the Asian Region and the complexity of the topic require that actions must also vary to suit specific social, cultural, and economic factors prevailing in each society. It is left to the seminar to assess the importance and weight of various issues, and as the paper is not exhaustive, to raise others and suggest measures.

## OVERVIEW

Since the 1970's, Asia has been experiencing an unprecedented growth in its female labour force. Women's employment increased at a faster rate than that of male workers, particularly in South East Asia. The highest increases in female participation rates occurred in Singapore, Hong Kong, and Malaysia resulting from rapid industrial growth. In Indonesia, the increase has been somewhat slower because of the relatively modest rate of expansion of the manufacturing industries.

A rapid increase has also been observed in India because of rural women entering wage employment in agriculture and non-farm sectors. A considerable expansion of the female labour force in the service sector has occurred in Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong, and Korea, and to a lesser degree in Indonesia, the Philippines, and Thailand. Since Thailand already had the highest female participation rate in Asia, the increase in the past years has been relatively slow. During the 80's, female activity rates have reached in Thailand 45.7 per cent (1980), Japan 38.3 per cent (1983), Singapore 34.9 per cent (1983), Australia 34.5 per cent (1981), Korea 29.5 per cent (1983), Malaysia 25.3 per cent (1980), Indonesia 23.3 per cent (1980), and India 19.8 per cent (1981).[1/] The statistical figures, however, should be interpreted with great care as women's work is still under-reported statistically in many countries.

In quantitative terms, women's economic position may have improved. Yet, despite the massive increase in the female labour force, women's position in the economy has changed little, and their equitable access to opportunities does not seem to have improved significantly. With the exception of Japan and Singapore, women still work mainly in agriculture as unpaid (family) or low paid workers. At the upper end of the skill hierarchy, the proportion of women in professional, technical, and related fields is higher than that of men only in Singapore, Japan, and the Philippines, but men predominate in absolute numbers. Moreover, this category is heterogenous, and includes occupational groups such as nurses and teachers at the lower end of the pay scale in which women predominate. The share of women in the administrative and managerial occupations is still very small (Table 1). The major increase in female employment has occurred in the lowest paid, skilled and responsibility jobs in a narrow range of occupations, particularly in the services and manufacturing.

Occupational segregation, defined as certain jobs being filled exclusively or largely be a single sex, has long been a characteristic of the Asian labour markets and still perpetuates. It shows two characteristics: "horizontal segregation" which confines

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[1/] The sources of all statistical data and analysis is the ILO Yearbook of Labour Statistics, 1986 unless otherwise stated.

women to a narrow range of so-called female occupations, and "vertical segregation" which restricts them at the bottom of the occupational ladder with low skill, responsibility, and pay.

Occupational segregation has negative consequences both for women and the national economic and social development. It contributes to the maintenance of substantial wage differentials between women and men, it makes women prone to unemployment and underemployment, and hampers their horizontal and vertical mobility in the labour market. It also ignores their potential and development as human capital, and limits the effective utilisation of resources invested in their training. In many developing countries, funds are frequently invested in training women in skills where there is little or no demand, while the developing economies may be crippled by a lack of qualified manpower such as at technical, supervisory, or skilled worker levels in growth sectors or in sectors experiencing high male turnover because of overseas or internal migration. Several case studies and country reports submitted to this seminar confirm that a large majority of women elect domestic sciences, art, and social work during their educational cycle, and their participation in vocational training is mainly limited to fields such as home economics, handicrafts, teaching, nursing, hairdressing, and cosmetics. The questions relating to employment, training, and patterns of female labour force participation are discussed in more detail by three other ILO papers submitted to the seminar.

By the 21st century, the number of women in the labour force in Asia is projected to reach 500 million.2/ Unless the present trend in occupational segregation is reversed, and the increasing labour force diverted into a wider range of employment, the ill effects of job segregation will be felt more, and the few female occupations will be saturated with an over-supply of labour. The question, therefore, is not only that of equal opportunity but of national development.

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2/ Calculations based on ILO Population & Labour Force Projections (ILO Geneva) 2nd Edition, 1977.

## THE FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE OCCUPATIONAL SEGREGATION OF THE FEMALE LABOUR FORCE

A variety of factors, which influence occupational segregation positively or negatively, interact and reinforce each other in creating or breaking barriers. These may be broadly grouped as legal, economic, social and cultural factors, and education and training.

### Legal Factors

There are no major legal barriers which prevent women from being trained and entering most occupations in Asian countries. Some of the social legislation, however, may put limitations on women's entry into certain occupations through regulating and placing restrictions on their employment. For instance women are excluded from employment in underground work in mines according to ILO Convention No. 45. Those countries which ratify this convention are expected to enforce it through national legislation. Women may, however, participate in mining in non-manual work such as in management, health and welfare services, or training.

Another example of legislation restricting women's work relates to nightwork in industry covered by ILO Convention No. 89 adopted in 1948, (superseded by Nos. 4 and 41 adopted in 1919 and 1934 respectively). Exceptions include family undertakings, women in managerial and technical positions, and in health and welfare services not involving manual work. Laws and regulations in a country may put restrictions on nightwork, but women are employed in certain branches of the services sector such as hospitals and health services, hotels, restaurants, bars, places of entertainment, commerce, and offices. In many countries legislation, regulations, and collective agreements contain special provisions for women's working conditions, such as nightshift work which may take the form of providing supplementary overtime, transport, or food.

Maternity protection and benefits constitute another area which calls for specific provisions in favour of women workers. When legislated as an employer liability, maternity benefits may give rise to discriminatory practices in hiring and dismissal. Social insurance, by treating maternity benefits as the responsibility of the society as a whole, might be a desirable solution.

Protective social legislation exclusively for women has constrained women's entry into certain occupations. However, with technological and social progress, this legislation is being increasingly revised to reflect the needs of life in modern society. One view is that social and protective legislation today should cover all workers, male and female alike, with the exception of legislation relating to maternity and genetic risk, such as exposure to radiation during pregnancy. An example is ILO Convention (No. 156) and Recommendation (No. 165) on Workers with Family Responsibilities, whereas an earlier standard referred exclusively to women as having family responsibilities. The question of revising Convention No. 89 on nightwork is under discussion by the ILO Governing Body.

Progress has been made in many countries on the enactment of equal opportunity or anti-discrimination policy and legislation such as the Equal Remuneration Act passed in 1976 in India, discrimination and equal remuneration legislation adopted by New Zealand in 1983, and the Equal Opportunity Act enacted in 1985 in Japan. Most countries including China, Fiji, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Western Samoa, have formulated national policies and plans of action introducing women's concerns in their development plans and establishing national co-ordinating mechanisms. The real problem, however, lies in the implementation of legislation, policies, and plans, and in bringing about practical improvements in the lives of large numbers of women workers.

The nature and extent of the impact of legislation and policies in limiting or expanding women' occupational choices, and motivating trainers and employers in opening new avenues to women, is still to be studied. The question is to what extent these laws and policies influence the entry of women into occupations which are new to them.

For instance, how does equal pay legislation affect diversification of women's occupations? Which types of legislation and policies are likely to accelerate change, motivate, and create greater impact? Which policy measures are resulting in breaking barriers or simply obtaining token jobs for a few women, for instance to fill quotas? What type of progress could be regarded as a solid step towards equality of opportunity? Answers to these questions may be difficult and not forthcoming in the short period in which equal opportunity legislation and policy have been enacted. Taking into account the key role of equal opportunity laws and policies for diversification, the subject may be considered for further study.

## Social and Cultural Factors

Social and cultural factors play a major role in creating occupational segregation. A main underlying factor is the consideration of childbearing and home-making as the main and lifelong occupation for women, a view which influences both women's perceptions of themselves and their attitudes towards work and training and that of the society as a whole. Consequently, women's work is regarded as temporary, to fill time until marriage, and only short term education and training is considered worthy, providing lower skills. Priority investment for education and training is given to boys and men who are expected to sustain a family throughout their lifetime. The weakness in these assumptions arises from overlooking the fact that women are a heterogeneous group, and many women's circumstances do not fit the above picture. Women in developed and developing countries work and have worked, out of necessity, all along. A number of them are main breadwinners (female headed households) due to changing economic and social circumstances.

There is some indication that women's occupations are often an extension of their domestic functions, such as education of children (teaching); caring for the elderly and the sick (nursing and social work); and housework, as well as preparation of food and clothing (occupations in the service sector, food, and textile industries). These rarely extend to supervisory or management jobs in educational and health establishments, or textile factories which are often male occupations. Yet, women's occupations are not the same the world over.

Variations may be found even between various geographic regions in a country. Some jobs, which are almost exclusively female in one country, may be considered a male occupation in another. Carpet weaving which is a traditional activity for women in a country is found to be exclusively performed by boys in a geographical area within the country. Although women assume food preparation in all societies, most paid jobs as cooks are filled by male workers. There seems to be difficulty in discerning a rationale across cultures and societies which explains why an occupation becomes male or female.

Small numbers of women are found in most occupations around the world. Investigations carried out by an ILO study as early as 1976 on entry of women in skilled industrial employment,[3/] indicated that women generally proved themselves in non-traditional occupations to be as capable as men. Although certain differences usually emerge in average performance, women being better in certain jobs than men or vice versa, it has not been proved whether these are founded on cultural or other factors. An ILO study on the iron and steel industry revealed, an interesting case in Venezuela which illustrates this point, as well as the constraints faced in training and employment of women in non-traditional occupations posed by regulations. A company trained and employed women as overhead crane operators. They proved to be good operators, effectively maintained a good routine, and absenteeism was low. They showed great care in the use of equipment thereby reducing maintenance costs. Yet, their employment had to be discontinued when it was found impractical to provide toilet facilities required by the safety and health authorities. Then training these women as operators of forklift trucks was considered. A prerequisite of such training was the possession of a driving licence in order to comply with the terms of local insurance. Since most of the women did not have driving licences they were automatically excluded from this type of training and opportunity of employment. The company was reported to have explored other prospects for women workers but existing regulations did not permit the employment of women on all shifts.

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[3/] Opportunities for Girls and Women in Skilled Industrial Employment, ILO 1976, Geneva (unpublished).

A frequent explanation behind traditionally female jobs is the main disadvantage suffered by the average woman due to inferior physical strength compared to men. Technological progress, however, is rapidly removing this disadvantage in most work. Better organisation of work and equipment suitable for women could bring modifications where heavy tasks would be within their reach. It could, and has on occasion achieved improved conditions of work for men as well as women. The Belgian Post Office, in promoting a policy of equal opportunity, attempted the recruitment and training of postwomen. There was a regulation to protect women workers which allows women to carry loads up to only 15 kg a day. This was overcome by using trolleys and small vehicles.

Generally, traditions which break employment into women's and men's jobs are more deeply rooted in older industries. Women's opportunities of advancement thus would likely be better in the electronics industry than in the metal industry, in modern branches of printing than in the long-established printing crafts using hot metal composition. Long-standing male domains in employment are the most difficult for women to enter. Thus, although there are a number of skilled and unskilled jobs in industry which could offer opportunities for women's entry into industrial work, in practice this is very difficult. The common explanation given by employers is that women are not interested in industrial jobs, and do not apply anyway, do not like to work on shifts, will not be accepted by male workers, or that these have been male jobs all along.

Supervisory and particularly management positions are difficult for women to penetrate. The training for such jobs is generally provided on the job, either through special courses or through selection, rotation, and grooming for higher level posts. Studies undertaken in this direction reveal that managers, who are mostly men in all countries, are inclined to select young men with whom they associate as a result of long established role-models, of which they may not even be fully aware. As a result, women are often not even considered for such posts regardless of education, abilities, experience, seniority, or past performance. The creation of awareness among managers, and the entry of women into management posts, will no doubt gradually improve the situation in the long run.

## Economic Factors

Women have found easy access to jobs when economies are expanding or at certain times of serious manpower shortages. During the two world wars the economies had to rely on women who found themselves filling all kinds of occupations which had been male domains previously. A recent example from the Philippines indicates that, to combat high male labour turnover, employers sometimes revert to women to fill male occupations such as welding.[4/] In Korean villages, migration of males to cities in search of industrial jobs forced women to assume agricultural tasks for which they were not trained and prepared.[5/] Similar examples are found in many other Asian countries. It is also interesting to see that these very circumstances are leading to special pilot projects/schemes addressed exclusively to women to train them to assume male occupations.

Another interesting example is the case of Japan, with its declining birthrate and aging population, facing the future with the prospect of a declining labour force, and having to sustain and increase its economic growth and provide social security for its increasing older population. Although technology may change the labour demand, and its effects are still unpredictable and largely debated, Japan needs its female workforce.

Economic factors are the most powerful force in women's increased participation in a wide range of occupations, leading to measures aimed at retaining women at work after marriage and childbirth, or facilitating their re-entry into the workforce after a period of absence for raising a family. An increased demand for female labour, however,

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[4/] A. Zafra: Diversification of Women's Training and Employment in the Philippines, 1983.

[5/] Please see Chapter IV: M. Roh: A case study on the Diversification of Women's Training and Employment in Korea, Oct., 1986.

may not necessarily result in a more diversified and higher level of employment. A variety of measures are needed to accomplish this, especially for married women returning to work. The comparatively new trend of women returning to work occurs sharply in Singapore, Korea, and Japan. In the latter two countries, the practice of a lifelong employment system previously gave little chance to women. This practice, combined with women's customary departure from the workforce at marriage and childbirth, led to consideration that the female labour force was not worthy of investment for training and development as a reliable work force. Particularly, well developed on-the-job training systems, such as in Japan, make women's access to training or responsible jobs more difficult. The customary systems, however, crumble in the face of demand for female labour which undoubtedly creates the greatest incentive and impact in diversifying women's occupations. Combined favourable economic factors, policy interventions, and measures in a long term perspective will create the best environment possible for equal opportunity.

The female labour force meets the demand for a flexible workforce adaptable to part-time employment. Flexible work patterns, however, could lead to lowering wages in certain occupations, and the creation of a workforce unorganised and unprotected by social security unless measures are devised to organise and protect these workers. In Singapore, in conformity with the government policy of attracting and retaining women in the labour force, a National Employers' Symposium was held on "Working parents: Work and Family Responsibilities" in 1984 by the Singapore National Employers' Federation, Chamber of Commerce and Industry, in collaboration with the ILO.[6/] Singapore is now promoting flexible work patterns, fringe benefits, childcare and parent education. Such measures are too new for assessing results, but there is no doubt

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[6/] Singapore National Employers' Federation: Report on National Employers Symposium on Working Parents: Work and Family Responsibilities - The Role of Employers, Singapore, 1-2 Oct.,1984.

that they will meet women's needs and demands in combining family and work roles, particularly as there is a change in the characteristics and employment pattern of Asian women. They tend to enter employment later than before, increasingly continue work after marriage, break employment for shorter durations, and seek re-entry into the workforce.

The situation created by economic factors may be quite complex, requiring thorough study and careful consideration. For instance, even though new occupations may emerge due to technological change, the result may be labour reduction. On such occasions, it is evident that resistance from the workers and unions would make it particularly difficult for women to succeed as new entrants into the labour market and break into these limited new job opportunities. On other occasions, women have new options but these are low income, less skilled, and menial jobs. An example may be seen in the printing trades. Although modern occupations in the printing industry have emerged as a result of the changeover from hot metal to photo-composition, the reduction in the number of jobs available has sometimes made it difficult for women to enter into the new occupations created. Priority was given to the employment of male workers who were facing redundancy. Among the new jobs one is called "endless typing" (frappe au kilometre) and consists of continuous typing fed into the computer for text composing. There seemed to be evidence that, while men on average type 7,000 signs, women can type 15,000 with less mistakes. Workers' production in such jobs declined after about four hours due to constant pressure and dull and repetitive operation. This eventually led the management to look for part-time workers, and the male workers, who were well qualified, search for better prospects. It is no surprise therefore, to find that these are becoming "female occupations" as they offer women rare part-time work opportunities compatible with their family responsibilities. Now publications which give information on careers in the printing industry often portray these occupations as female, while more technical, skilled, and better paid jobs are portrayed for men. Furthermore, the present trend in some countries, for instance in the United States, is to have journalists type directly on the computer, eliminating the endless typing performed by women. On the other hand, changeover from metal composition to photo composition has certainly improved the conditions of work in this industry, to which women had less access previously, by eliminating the heavy lifting of metal sheets, lead fumes, etc., and introducing protective regulations.

It is evident that the moment of change from old to new technologies is a crucial one: it may offer new opportunities for women or take away their already slim chances. Thus, it is necessary to keep a close watch on technological developments and their likely effect on the labour force, training, and women. Measures and pilo projects in favour of women must be based upon careful study and analysis of each case on its own merits, taking into account social and economic implications.

## Education and Training

In most countries, the present education and training systems unfortunately only help to perpetuate the segregation of women in the labour market. The curricula within the educational system often differ for boys and girls. As mentioned earlier, many women's institutes gear their training programmes to producing better housewives and mothers, especially in developing countries, thus contributing much to labour segregation. The system continues to produce teachers and instructors for girls' training who are trained in subjects with weak labour demand and who, therefore, have no other option but to teach what they know. Yet, in developing countries, many of these institutions are popular with young girls dropping out of the formal school system who usually come from low-income families. Women's institutes and programmes, especially in rural areas, often represent the only and final opportunity of education and training for them. This situation is accentuated in countries where custom dictates segregation in education and employment. The education system, deeply rooted in its traditions in many countries, fails to prepare large numbers of girls and women for modern life. Without reform of the existing educational and training systems (both within the formal school system and outside), the curricula, teacher and instructor training, selection and testing procedures, and particularly the educational and vocational guidance systems, and training of teaching and guidance staff, little change can be expected in the long run.

Recent trends are likely to aggravate the situation. As a result of population pressures and the higher aspirations of both men and women, the demand for training is rapidly increasing and will continue to do so in the future. The cost of training is also rising, particularly because of rapidly changing and higher technology, and the necessity for recurrent training and guidance.[7] This means that countries will be struggling to meet the cost of training. The high cost of much needed training, and the chronic shortage of resources to meet this need, requires rationalisation of training systems through better utilisation of existing resources. Thus, the value and utility of existing training programmes will be increasingly questioned from the investment point of view. Planners will be forced to severly scrutinise programmes as choices for financing must be made. Many of the programmes, mainly or exclusively attended by women, will not be able to stand such scrutiny as they may not be in priority areas of skill demand, with low investment value in economic terms. Planners therefore face two undesirable alternatives: either to continue these programmes for social considerations despite weak manpower demand, thus perpetuating ineffective utilisation of resources, or discontinue them on grounds of resource constraints, thus causing greater inequities in access to training and employment opportunities. There is urgent need for a third alternative. That is to seek measures to modernise female lines of training in areas of manpower demand.

To sum up, occupational segregation based on sex occurs both in employment and in training, each reinforcing the other and creating a complex and vicious circle difficult to break. Although women do work, much of this work is still not visible or recorded statistically.

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[7] The difficulties of financing vocational training by developing countries was particularly brought out by the ILO In-Depth Study of the Vocational Training Programme, (Geneva, November 1983, GB/PFA/10/4, 224th Session).

Figures may show that they do participate in education and training, yet their training is neither likely to be sufficiently broad-based to allow them occupational mobility, nor to meet the skill requirements of the labour market although the economy, especially in developing countries, may be facing serious manpower shortages. Breaking down rigid occupational barriers in education, training, and employment is essential, not only to give women equal opportunities and greater options, but also to provide economies with effectively developed female manpower.

## STRATEGY AND MEASURES

Surveys and experience point to the need for, inter alia: a well-defined policy and legislation on equality, and data particularly on the employment market upon which strategies and positive action could be based. Last, but not least, there is a role for an organisation to promote, encourage, and sometimes to monitor (or follow-up) actions undertaken, evaluate progress made, and define needs for further action from a long-term perspective.

### Identification of Employment Opportunities for Diversification

A two pronged strategy may be adopted in promoting women's employment: diversification in occupations where they are under-represented (i.e. male occupations), and diversification in newly emerging occupations in growth sectors.

### Occupations where women are under-represented

Since long-standing male domains in employment are the most difficult for women to enter, it might be relatively easy to start with occupations and industries where women are already employed in large numbers, and train them for higher levels of skills and responsibility. Examples are: supervisory and management posts in the textile industry; machining of leather garments which is better paid than ordinary machining, and the repair and maintenance of the machinery.

## Newly emerging occupations

This approach seems to offer the best opportunity for women as these occupations are not yet classified as male or female in people's minds, and women are not likely to meet with resistance when entering them. Growing and diversified economies with labour shortages should create the ideal climate, but evidence sometimes points to contrary results. Opportunities created are often not taken by women, and they are left behind in the development process unless interventions are made to prepare them for these opportunities.

## Identification of the Target Group

It needs to be accepted from the outset that action, particularly initially, would likely benefit relatively small numbers of women. Although the numbers may seem negligible, these women will play a crucial role in bringing about social change and creating an impact through developing a new image with which girls and women could identify, and serve as examples for larger scale action. The importance of selecting the right target group in the planning and implementation of initial measures cannot be overemphasised. Chances of success would be improved by relying on above-average, highly motivated, girls and women who have the necessary characteristics for assuming pioneering roles to serve as models for others. Being a woman pioneer in a male work domain is an extraordinary difficult task. It requires exceptional performance under unforeseen difficulties, the facing of unexpected problems, and being able to stand pressures and resistance from society. It is already indicative that, in pilot schemes, dropping out is a problem. It seems that girls and women with high drive and motivation, with ability to follow the instruction given (if necessary, improved by remedial training), and with the necessary strength of character and perseverance would qualify for such a pioneering role. It is likely that three groups would have such qualities. These are the young and enthusiastic, who would enjoy breaking new ground; older women willing to re-enter employment and ready to consider a more satisfying and better paid job than she did before; and women who are economically motivated, such as those who are main breadwinners. For each group there are a number of factors to be considered and necessary measures to be taken. For women heading households, the necessity to earn an income could be so great that they may not even apply, or might drop out from the pilot schemes. Thus, financial assistance in the form of allowances, would be a determining factor in maintaining them until the end of the programme.

## Data on Training and Employment of Women

Planning for women's entry into occupations where they are under-represented, would require data on women's training and employment on the one hand, and the economic situation, employment opportunities, and technological change on the other. An analysis of the present and future employment opportunities for salaried and self-employed workers will be needed, taking into account various factors such as population and labour force; structure of the labour force by age, sex, geographical distribution, and occupation; social and economic development plans; public and private investment schemes; labour supply and demand; wage levels; and the capacity of the market to absorb further production, and import and export policies. The problem is to identify where labour shortages are and are likely to be, so that measures and strategies to encourage women filling these shortages may be defined and launched.

Regular study of the impact of technology on employment in general, and on sectors and occupations where women work in particular, is called for, while growth occupations for which they can be prepared are being identified. Long term policy and practical measures should focus on economic and technological factors effecting employment and female labour positively and negatively, and on areas of manpower demand, and not solely on social and behavioural studies of women.

There seem to be difficulties in measuring occupational segregation in employment and training. Data on men and women in the labour market, broken down by specific occupations, is required to identify more accurately the occupations they concentrate in, and those in which they are under-represented, especially by level of skill, responsibility, and pay, and including hours of work. Still many countries report that data on occupational training needs to be disaggregated and qualified because many types of training, which are purely domestic and without economic or commercial value, are given to women under the title "vocational".

Studies, as mentioned above, will necessitate collaboration and consultation with development planners, employers' and workers' organisations, and all other bodies whose opinions and experience can assist in devising and implementing of effective measures for diversification, matched realistically to present and future economic opportunities. The employment opportunities and training needs assessment is the essential basic study on which action will be based with regular review and adaptation to changing conditions and opportunities. Improvements in information-gathering procedures, through the least cumbersome means of securing figures and analysis, are essential in the long run to proper planning.

## Improvements Within the Training System

Measures could be sought along various parallel lines: encouraging women's entry into existing mainstream programmes and institutions alongside boys and men, wherever feasible; reorientating women's participation in apprenticeship and on-the-job training, particularly at the supervisory and management levels. Flexible training systems could be promoted through interventions such as removing age restrictions for entry into training; utilisation of recurrent training systems and methods; launching remedial courses to bring women to the required level of entry for technical institutions; and increasing boarding/childcare facilities. Female instructors could be trained in occupations where women are under-represented to establish role models and counteract male instructor turnover.

Educational reform could support training measures particularly by applying the same curricula to boys and girls, giving women a broad based education and training to enhance their occupational mobility, and further training influencing occupational choice through various means.

## Flexible Work Patterns

Flexible employment patterns can provide the main impetus for women to stay in employment without interruption, reduce the duration of absence from work, and facilitate re-entry. As mentioned earlier, these measures need to be accompanied by others to give these workers social protection. The policy of promoting flexible hours, part-time work, job-sharing, reduction of work hours, and parental leave across the board for both men and women, may be the best application of the flexible work patterns. Promoting special re-entry schemes may be a useful way to assist women who wish to return to work or need to take up their first jobs later in life due to economic reasons.

## Pilot Training and Employment Schemes

In promoting pilot schemes some of the measures mentioned above might be applied. Especially important however, is involving employers, unions, and workers at the enterprise level where schemes are to be implemented. Pilot schemes need to be devised in a long term perspective, supported by policy measures. The main question is to envisage from the start how these schemes can be translated into wider action in opening up occupations which were previously closed to women.

## Private Sector Tie-up with Employers' and Workers' Organisations

Important factors contributing to success are involving employers and workers actively in measures and pilot schemes through seeking their advice and assistance in planning, implementation, evaluation, and placement, and creating awareness and support among employers, unions, and workers at the enterprise level, with the purpose of facilitating women's entry into employment. The government, as an employer, could set a model to the private sector in employing women in the public sector, state enterprises, and training institutions in non-traditional occupations. Encouragement of women to enter businesses as employers is a measure which could be supported by employers' organisations.

## Campaigns for Awareness, Occupational Information, Guidance, and Placement Services

Awareness campaigns could reach women and those who could bring about social change and increase the effectiveness of policies and programmes: parents, teachers, employers, trade unionists, workers, planners, and the public at large. Women's entry into a broad range of occupations could be encouraged through guidance and information within the school system; factory visits; training institutions; mass media; training of personnel to provide guidance for women; promoting role models portraying women in jobs in which it is nontraditional for them to work such as the training of female instructors in such occupations. Placement services and follow up during initial employment could include the placement of women in groups, formation of women's groups and associations, and training of placement personnel. Women's employment assistance centres and welfare centres such as those for working women in Japan[8/] provide examples for discussion. Assistance could also be extended to promoting self-employment through linkages with institutions providing credit, tools, materials, and extension/advisory services.

## Information Sharing and Networking

A regular sharing of information on this topic would seem to be necessary through existing national and regional networks relating to employment and training, workers' and employers' organisations, directors of training and employment, and agencies dealing with national planning and with women's affairs. In this way existing structures will be involved in diversifying women's occupations and be linked.

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[8/] Please see Chapter V: Japan Country Paper, ILO/Japan Seminar on Diversification of Women's Training and Employment Opportunities in Selected Asian Countries, Tokyo, 8-12 Dec. 1986.

## CONCLUSION

In conclusion, three main points emerge from the proceeding review. First, women's participation in the labour force has increased numerically, but occupational segregation based on sex in Asian labour markets still persists. Second, there is growing concern and interest among governments, workers, and employers to open up wider work opportunities for women. Third, special policies and measures are called for, within a long-term perspective at the national level, to diversify women's occupations with inter-country networks. Fundamental change is not likely to be brought about by women's institutions or programmes, but by mainstream development institutions addressing women's needs and developing measures to accelerate the process of their occupational diversification. It is for this reason that ILO places special emphasis on the role of employers' and workers' organisations in this process alongside that of governments. It is now up to this seminar to seek answers to the following questions:

- What are the key issues and problems of diversification to be addressed?
- What policies and practical measures at the national level, could be developed (particularly sectoral), and by whom?
- What kind of regional support may be required?

**Table** Structure of the economically active population in eight Asian countries by major occupational group and sex, 1970 and 1980 (percentage)

| Country | | Professional technical and related workers | | Admin. and managerial workers | | Clerical workers | | Sales workers | | Service workers | | Agricultural workers | | Production and related workers | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1970 | 1980 | 1970 | 1980 | 1970 | 1980 | 1970 | 1980 | 1970 | 1980 | 1970 | 1980 | 1970 | 1980 |
| India | M | 2.3 | 3.1 | 0.8 | 1.2 | 3.5 | 3.9 | 4.8 | 5.3 | 3.2 | 3.1 | 69.8 | 64.2 | 11.1 | 16.3 |
| | F | 2.7 | 3.3 | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.7 | 0.8 | 1.5 | 1.1 | 3.1 | 1.9 | 82.5 | 81.2 | 7.0 | 7.2 |
| Indonesia | M | 2.3 | 3.8 | 4.2 | 0.1 | 4.2 | 4.5 | 8.8 | 10.0 | 3.3 | 3.1 | 61.0 | 57.1 | 12.3 | 21.0 |
| | F | 2.1 | 3.3 | 2.0 | ... | 1.1 | 1.4 | 13.5 | 18.5 | 4.9 | 6.7 | 58.6 | 53.3 | 11.3 | 15.0 |
| Japan | M | 7.2 | 7.7 | 6.1 | 7.0 | 12.2 | 12.1 | 11.1 | 14.3 | 5.8 | 6.1 | 14.7 | 9.2 | 43.0 | 43.6 |
| | F | 6.2 | 10.1 | 0.5 | 0.9 | 18.8 | 23.6 | 12.6 | 15.0 | 11.6 | 12.0 | 26.1 | 13.6 | 24.3 | 24.7 |
| Korea | M | 3.8 | 5.2 | 1.4 | 1.6 | 7.5 | 10.0 | 10.4 | 12.3 | 4.5 | 5.4 | 45.8 | 32.5 | 25.4 | 32.9 |
| | F | 2.1 | 3.5 | 0.1 | ... | 2.8 | 8.6 | 9.6 | 11.6 | 10.8 | 9.9 | 59.7 | 46.9 | 19.7 | 19.9 |
| Philippines | M | 3.5 | 3.5 | 1.2 | 1.4 | 2.9 | 3.6 | 4.2 | 5.7 | 3.7 | 4.9 | 61.6 | 59.5 | 18.6 | 21.2 |
| | F | 10.5 | 9.6 | 1.1 | 0.5 | 4.0 | 4.7 | 16.3' | ... | 12.5' | ... | 33.9 | 38.6 | 20.3 | 24.7 |
| Singapore | M | 6.8 | 8.1 | 2.2 | 6.3 | 11.7 | 8.4 | 17.9 | 15.7 | 10.6 | 9.2 | 4.4 | 3.1 | 41.8 | 40.4 |
| | F | 14.2 | 9.8 | 0.4 | 0.2 | 16.9 | 16.8 | 10.7 | 12.3 | 23.3 | 13.6 | 3.2 | 1.2 | 30.8 | 30.5 |
| Sri Lanka | M | 3.7 | 3.8 | 0.4 | 0.7 | 6.0 | 6.1 | 9.3 | 9.3 | 5.3 | 4.9 | 46.0 | 43.6 | 27.1 | 31.4 |
| | F | 3.9 | 10.7 | 0.1 | 0.3 | 2.6 | 4.1 | 2.2 | 4.7 | 5.7 | 5.9 | 61.4 | 53.4 | 16.2 | 21.0 |
| Thailand | M | 1.9 | 2.5 | 2.6 | 2.0 | 1.5 | 1.9 | 4.2 | 6.4 | 2.8 | 2.5 | 75.6 | 67.9 | 11.2 | 16.8 |
| | F | 1.5 | 2.5 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.8 | 1.6 | 5.9 | 10.5 | 2.9 | 2.8 | 83.5 | 74.2 | 5.0 | 7.9 |

... = not available
' = no break down available for sales and service workers
Source: ILO: Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1970 and 1980 (Geneva)

# EMPLOYMENT DIVERSIFICATION OF WOMEN IN ASIAN COUNTRIES : AN ASSESSMENT

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There is a great deal of concern expressed in several quarters regarding the extent to which women in Asian countries become participants as well as beneficiaries in the process of economic development. This concern is indeed justified if we take into account the overwhelmingly rural background of several Asian countries wherein culture and sociology together seem to have laid down rigid ground-rules governing the position of women in the society. As a result, in many Asiatic societies, the role of women in the economy is seen to be contained within the precincts of the household, in conformity with the social division of labour followed in traditional societies.[1]

Against this background we also observe a common trait shared by many developing countries of Asia, which is the prevalence of a distinct male bias in the conceptualisation of employment. A wide range of activities traditionally performed by women within the household are by definition excluded from the angle of gainful employment. The ostensible reason underlying such an approach to the classification of the labour force is that household based activities rarely cater to the domain of marketable goods and services. The net outcome of such biased interpretation is that in several Asian countries we continue to encounter absurdly low levels of worker participation rates among women.

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[1] For a discussion on the historical evolution of the social division of labour within developing countries of Asia and Africa see Ester Boserup (1970). Within the Asian context for a careful summing up of the various developmental issues related to women Noeleen Heyzer Ed. (1985), Introductory Chapter.

The prevalence of a near vacuum situation in the data sources, clearly evident in countries of South Asia, impedes us from making any realistic analysis of women's role and position in the economy at least in the context of these countries.[2]

Nonetheless, viewed in a dynamic setting, there is some scope for analysing the labour force data on women within Asian countries and thereby gathering interesting insights into the processes at work which bring about changes in the position of women in the economy. In a dynamic setting we start with the premise that the economic position of women in any Asian country is influenced by the extent of their involvement in income earning activities outside the household sector. Perhaps the most significant feature of economic development under way in countries of Asia is the structural transformation within their economics whereby the output and employment shares of the household based primary sector are being superseded by those of the secondary and tertiary sector.

Participation of women in economic activities, outside the household, to the extent it takes place, tends to be reported along with several associated characteristics with greater accuracy and consistency within statistics of the labour force in most Asian countries. In this study we shall, therefore, deal with such data on employment of women - disaggregated to the extent possible - available for many countries of Asia during the preceding one or two decades. Specifically we shall concentrate on four specific aspects of the changes in the profile of women workers in Asian countries. These are: age specific worker participation rates of women; employment status of women workers; sectoral variations; and distribution of women workers by occupation.

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2/ Commendable efforts have been made in the past towards a stock taking of the position of women in Asian countries. The literature in this respect is vast and varied. Some of the recent studies, which were particularly useful for the preparation of the present study are listed below: Heyzer (1985), Heyzer (1986), Sen (1986), Ogawa (1986), Siow-Yue (1986) Cho (1986), Corner (1986), Saito & Ogawa (1986), Sundaram & Leng (1985), Jayawardena & Jayaweera (1985).

## SOME METHODOLOGICAL ASPECTS

Data on labour force participation among women has been compiled for as many as 18 countries in the Asian region. This data mostly obtained from one source, viz., The Year Book of Labour Statistics, published annually by the ILO, has been arranged in order to capture the pattern and dimensions of change in the number and composition of women workers during the period from the early 1960s up to the early 1980s. Such comparative data, however, was available only for a total of 12 countries. The data originally obtained from census of labour force survey sources has been presented wherever possible with reference to three different points of time during the early 1960s, 1970s and 1980s.

The striking regional variations in the incidence of various parameters (which we shall examine in some detail) also bring out an important observation that a handful of countries in Asia are clearly ahead of the rest regarding the pace of structural transformation involving women workers within their labour markets. These countries, namely Japan, Hong Kong, Singapore, South Korea and Malaysia, which also happen to be comparatively better off economically, can rightly be described as the vanguard countries of Asia in that the Structural changes manifested in their labour markets are forerunners of similar changes taking place elsewhere in Asia.[3/] Disaggregated estimates of women workers from these countries (except Malaysia), are also available for the year 1984. We include this data in our comparative analysis with a view to assessing the direction and magnitude of changes taking place in the 'avante garde' countries in relation to those in the less developed countries of Asia.

Before proceeding to the discussion, we would like to draw attention, to a major limitation of the present study, which has a limited coverage in that it deals only with some aspects of the sectoral

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3/ No value judgement is implied in this connotation - the trend has good as well as bad implications for women workers.

and occupational dimensions of women's employment in Asian countries. A number of extremely important issues concerning the terms and conditions of employment of women vis-a-vis men have been kept out of the parview of our discussions. Any meaningful analysis of the relative economic position of women in Asian countries requires due attention to be given to the above mentioned factors. For that reason, discussions attempted within the present paper provide only a partial and incomplete picture of the functioning of labour markets. It is our hope that as many of the pertinent issues regarding wages and working conditions of women in Asian countries would be taken up for careful and systematic analysis within the framework of some studies which ARTEP proposes to undertake in the near future.

We shall devote the remaining part of this paper to a comparative analysis of the employment data on women in Asian countries, based on figures furnished in eighteen tables in the text. While doing so we shall try to minimise on the descriptive account of the tables (which we presume are self-explanatory), and instead aim at highlighting the broad patterns and direction of changes with regard to the numbers and composition of women workers across the countries. In this respect, first we take up the question of the labour force participation of women.

## THE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION RATES (LFPR) OF WOMEN

The literature on development economics provides us with a good deal of insight into the chain of causation underlying the induction of women into the labour force of Asian countries.[4/] Modern economic growth and the associated diversification of economic activity tend to play a vital role in bringing about increased participation of women in activities outside the household-based sectors of the economy. Factors which ordinarily accompany economic growth, such as the decline in fertility rates, expansion of commercialisation in the economy, the

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[4/] For an excellent summary of the literature, standing (1978).

corresponding decline of the subsistence oriented household sector, and also the development of education and skill acquisition facilities have positively influenced and enhanced the entry of women into the labour market. These factors listed above by and large describe only the supply side of the labour market. There are as many factors on the demand side emanating from the diversification of economic activity leading to sustained increase in the demand for labour under various occupational categories. To the extent these supply and demand side forces have interacted in the past, we observe some clear patterns and trends with regard to worker participation rates of both men and women in various Asian countries. Since there are strong a priori reasons for treating the relative economic performance of each country as the single most important determinant of worker participation rates among women, it is only appropriate that we start our analysis with a look at the inter-country variations in the levels as well as the rates of economic growth within Asia.

## REGIONAL DIFFERENCES IN INCOME

Two sets of figures, the GNP per capita in Asian countries during the year 1984, and the annual rates of growth of per capita income during the period 1965-1984 are presented in Table 1. On the basis of these figures we can broadly identify three groups of countries in the region. The first group, comprising Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong, South Korea and Malaysia, is clearly ahead of the rest both in terms of per capita income and relative rates of growth. The range of variation in per capita income within this group of countries is fairly wide, though there is greater similarity in the rates of economic growth. Both in Japan and Malaysia the rates of growth have been close to 5 per cent per annum, while in the rest of the group they have been well above 6 per cent.

Three countries from South East Asia, namely Thailand, the Philippines, and Indonesia fall into a middle category with per capita income ranging between 500 to 1000 US Dollars. Within this group both Thailand and Indonesia have had fairly impressive rates of growth at more than 4 per cent per annum.

All of the remaining countries of Asia marked by low levels of per capita income, at less than 400 US Dollars, and low rates of growth, can be pooled together into the third group. Among these low income countries, only China stands out as having attained rates of growth in excess of 4 per cent during the period under review. Within the above classificatory framework, the second and third group of countries along with those from Indo-China can in fact be clumped into category, for they are overwhelmingly agrarian economics wherein the primary sector alone accounts for the largest share of output and employment. On the other hand countries under the first category are reckoned as economically better off, where the size and composition of output as well as employment have undergone significant changes in recent times in favour of the non-agricultural sectors.

## ESTIMATES OF POPULATION AND LABOUR FORCE

Prior to examining the trends in employment, we also take a look at some recent estimates of population and labour force pertaining to women in Asian countries given in Table 2. The figures have been furnished mostly to highlight the fact that there exists considerable heterogeneity across countries with regard to the incidence of the above two variables. As can be seen in the table, the range of variation in population and labour force is considerably large between countries like China and India at one end and Laos and Singapore at the other. Further in Table 2, there are also some estimates of crude worker participation rates i.e. the percentage of total women workers out of total female population within the countries under reference. Here again our objective is to project the regional variations in the rates. They range from as high as 50.6 per cent in the case of Thailand to as low a figure as 2.1 per cent in the case of Pakistan. We may also note in this context that there is no definitive pattern in the incidence of participation rates in relation to the levels of per capita income across countries. On the whole, countries in East and South East Asia have higher worker participation rates among women. Whether and how far these rates have increased over time, we shall examine in greater detail when we later take up the question of age specific participation rates of women. Before that we take a look at the relative rates of growth of female population and labour force in different countries of Asia during the preceding decades.

## GROWTH OF FEMALE LABOUR FORCE VIS-A-VIS POPULATION

Figures in Table 3 bring out clearly that rapid growth in the volume of female labour force in relation to population has been a phenomenon observed in most countries of Asia in recent times. In all these countries, the growth of the labour force during the preceding one or two decades is found to be more than proportionate to (in some cases several fold higher than) the corresponding growth of population. These figures pointedly refer to the fact that there has been an increased influx of women into the labour markets of Asian countries. The lone exception to the general pattern is Thailand where during the period under review the rate of growth of population was marginally higher than that of the labour force. This could possibly be explained in relation to the fact that Thailand already had the highest level of female participation rate among Asian countries, and that recent changes in the age structure of population and labour force could have brought about a deceleration of growth of women workers in the country. It is also important to note that Japan, which is industrially the most advanced country in Asia, has registered the lowest rate of growth of labour force. We will probably get a better picture of the factors underlying the divergent rates of growth of labour force when we examine the trends in age specific participation rates of women, which we take up next.

## AGE SPECIFIC LFPRs OF WOMEN

Some available data on trends in the labour force participation ratios of women belonging to specific age groups are presented in Tables 4 to 6. One methodological point regarding the presentation of figures in these and the ensuing tables is of order here. The estimates for each country are given pertaining to various points of time during the early 1960s, 1970s, 1980s and also the year 1984 for a selected few. The specific years to which these estimates refer are also mentioned in column 3 of each table.

First, we take up the participation rates of women within the working age groups, which we may define as those in the population belonging to the age groups 15 to 65 years.[5] As in the case of the aggregate participation rates in Table 2, here also we observe substantial inter-regional variation across countries of Asia. In some of the predominantly agrarian economics such as China, Thailand, Laos and Vietnam, the proportions range well above 60 per cent. On the other hand the agricultural countries of South Asia notably Bangladesh and Pakistan are marked by very low levels of worker participation.[6] Within the economically advanced countries which we earlier identified under category one the participation ratios have been in the neighbourhood of 50 per cent or more, and the rates have tended to show a consistent increase over time. In Japan, however, the participation rates remained stable around 55 per cent during the period under review. Among the countries of South East Asia, in the Philippines there was a perceptible increase in participation rates between 1960 and 1980, while in Indonesia a marginal increase took place between 1971 and 1980. In the case of Thailand, though participation rates slightly declined between 1960 and 1982, it still continues to be the highest observed anywhere in Asia. Among the countries of South Asia, India, Nepal and Sri Lanka have worker participation rates among the employable age groups ranging well above 30 per cent. Further, both in India and Nepal, the rates showed a perceptible increase during the period 1971 to 1981.

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5/ Labour force estimates of this specific age group are not uniformly available for all countries. For some countries - notably for those in South Asia - (as mentioned in the foot notes of Table 4) working age population refers to only those in the age group 15 to 60 years.

6/ The low participation rates among women noted in Bangladesh and Pakistan raise some doubts about the coverage of the labour force data from these countries. For a detailed assessment of the reliability and comparability of the data sources in the respective countries, Sen (1986) and Nayyar (1986).

We get more interesting clues on the emerging pattern of labour force participation from the further disaggregated estimates of age specific participation rates. Two specific categories we can take into account for this purpose, namely the age group of less than 15 years and the group aged 15 to 24 years. The relevant figures indicating the trends in participation rates are presented in Tables 5 and 6.

Employment of children belonging to the school - age group on paid or unpaid work within variety of sectors as seen in many Asian countries, is typically a syndrome of a less developed economy. Ordinarily, therefore, we would expect the labour force participation rates among those less than 15 years old to remain comparatively higher among the less developed countries of Asia. The figures in Table 5, by and large, conform to this picture. A more interesting question to pursue at this stage is whether economic growth in these countries has brought about improvements in living standards leading to the withdrawal of children, particularly female children, from the labour force. In this respect, the picture happens to be vastly varied across the countries of Asia. A discernible decline in participation rates ostensibly due to improved living standards and an associated increase in school enrolment ratios seems to be taking place in the rapidly growing economics of Asia. In more recent times, labour force participation among the younger age groups has become practically non-existent in the case of countries such as Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong, and South Korea.

Such improvements in the prevailing situation appear to be the case even in the less industrialised countries. Thailand is a case in point. In 1970, among all the Asian countries, the female labour force participation in the younger age groups was found to be highest in Thailand (11.7%) coming down to 6.9 per cent by 1982. Among the less developed countries, the most noticeable improvement is seen in the case of Sri Lanka where the rate was reduced to 1.1 per cent by 1980/81.

The figure in Table 6, describing labour force participation of population in the age groups 15-24 years, throw some light on the changing age composition of women workers in various countries.

The above age group, in fact, constitutes a nodal point of entry into the labour force for those who complete their schooling associated skill acquisition programmes. The long term changes in worker participation rates specific to these age groups can also give leads into the kind of qualitative changes in the composition of the female labour force. The case of countries in category number one may be examined first. In Japan we observe the curious picture of a consistent decline in worker participation over the preceding decades, from 58 per cent in 1960 to 44 per cent 1984. This phenomenon is clearly the outcome of developments in the educational sector whereby an increasingly large share of the youthful population seems to stay on for skill acquisition and advanced specialisation. The delayed entry into the labour market, resulting from an increase in attendance at educational institutions at higher levels of learning, could become manifested in a proportionate reduction in the participation rates of youthful population. Such reduction in participation rates specific to the age group 15-24 is also discernible in Singapore and South Korea. In both these countries the trend has been towards a continuous increase in participation rates up to the year 1980, after which they seem to have declined. No such decline is, however, visible as yet in the case of Hong Kong. In Malaysia also, worker participation rates within the concerned age group increased between 1970 and 1980.

Among the less industrialised countries, only in Thailand do we observe any decline in labour force ratios of the youthful population. Against the background of the already high worker participation rates prevalent in Thailand, whether this decline signifies any improvement in the coverage of higher reduction, however, remains to be verified. In all other countries for which time series data is available, the trend appears to be one of consistent increase in labour force ratios of the youth population. Based on the developments we observed in the context of economically better off countries, we could also surmise that this trend will continue uninterrupted until a stage is reached when overall improvements in the quality composition of the labour force will bring about a decline in the participation rates of the specific age groups. It may also be argued that the net outcome of such developments would be that the age curve of the female labour force in these countries will undergo significant alteration from its present bi-modal structure possibly towards a uni-modal one, which is believed to be the pattern emerging in the developed countries.

The bi-modal structure of the age curve specific to women workers arises because there are two distinct age groups, i.e., those less than 20 years of age and those between 30 and 45 years of age within which labour force participation rates tend to reach peak levels. In between, there is a drop in participation rates on account of women withdrawing from the labour force for child birth related reasons. It can be argued that improvements in the skill composition as well as a decline in the childbirth rate and thereby the reproductive span of the female labour force, can effect a change in the situation, and eventually the bi-modal curve will give way to a uni-modal curve with peak participation rates within the age group 25 to 40. In a recent study dealing with the age profile of women workers, Siow-Yue points out that the above scenario has already come to be seen in the context of Singapore.[7/] It is not our intention to argue that the age structure of the female labour force in all the countries will eventually conform to the pattern emerging in Singapore; however, it serves as an interesting example, the significance and lessons of which require careful assessment in the context of other countries in Asia.

## EMPLOYMENT STATUS OF WOMEN WORKERS

In the previous section we noted that Asian countries during the preceding decades have been marked by significant increases in the volume and relative proportion of women workers. A question naturally arises, in this context, as to whether and how these increases have

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[7/] Siow-Yue (1986), p. 15. However, the age curve of women workers noted in the context of Japan is distinctly M. Shaped. Ogawa (1986). It has also been argued in the case of Malaysia that the age curve of women workers is in a state of transition from bio-modal towards a uni-modal structure. Sundaram & Leng (1986) pp.33-36.

influenced the development of labour markets in the concerned countries. An important indicator which can be used to gauge progress in this regard, is the relative change in the employment status of the female labour force.

We can broadly identify three principal categories in the labour force, classified according to employment status. They are: own account workers and employers, unpaid family workers and; employees who work for wages or salaries. The historical experience of developed countries makes it abundantly clear that the development of labour markets, which accompanies economic growth, also results in a secular increase in the size and proportion of the category of employees vis-a-vis other categories of the labour force. It is worthwhile examining at this stage, how far developments in the Asian countries during the preceding decades correspond to such a picture. More specifically, we shall examine how far women workers in these countries constitute themselves into the category of employees, and how their relative proportions have increased over time.

The diverse economic setting of Asian countries makes such an analysis all the more interesting. These countries, since they belong to various stages in the transition from a predominantly agrarian background, display a good deal of variation with regard to the level as well as pace of change in the employment status of the female labour face. The relevant figures for 12 countries in Asia are presented in Tables 7 to 9.

First we examine the fast growing economics of Asia wherein the available data brings out the fact that significant changes towards the development of labour markets are under way. By 1984, close to 90 per cent of women workers in both Hong Kong and Singapore were found in the category of employees. In both these countries, the relative proportion of employees increased from an already high base level, i.e. above 70 per cent during the early 1960s. These two are primarily non-agricultural economics within which own account workers and unpaid family workers in the primary sector all along formed only a small share of the total work force. The picture is vastly different in the case of agrarian economics such as Japan and South Korea. In these countries, the share of employees among total women workers started increasing from low base levels during the period under review. Significant decline in the relative proportion of unpaid family workers also took place in the countries during the same period. In the case of Malaysia, close to 50 per cent of the women workers were reported to be employees during 1980.

Among the less developed countries, the highest proportion of employees has been noted in Sri Lanka (more than 50 per cent in 1980 and 1981), presumably on account of the preponderance of the plantation sector where women workers are employed in large numbers. The time series data for Sri Lanka, however, shows a decline in the relative share of employees between 1963 and 1980/81. It looks as though this is due to a significant increase in the supply of women workers in the country which was not accompanied by any corresponding increase in employment opportunities for such workers. Sri Lanka is reported to have experienced a phenomenal increase in the number of unemployed women during the intervening period.[8/] A decline in the relative share of own account workers is also found to have taken place in Indonesia between 1971 and 1980.

In all other countries where data is available, the trend seems to be towards a continuous increase in the share of employees. The most notable cases are from South East Asia, namely the Philippines and Thailand. The experience of Thailand, where the share of employees increased from 6.5 per cent to 19.5 per cent between 1960 and 1982, is especially important in view of the extremely high levels of labour force participation prevalent in the country. Employees accounted for 10 per cent of women workers in India during 1971. The lowest ratio was noted in Nepal (3.8 per cent in 1981) where, in fact, employers and own account workers constituted as much as 90 per cent of total women workers.

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[8/] Unemployment ratio among women increased from 8.9 per cent in 1963 to 31.8 per cent in 1981. For a detailed discussion Jayawardena and Jayaweera (1985) pp. 136-138.

In sum, the data we just examined points to the vast heterogeneity extant in Asian countries with regard to the employment status of women workers, and also throws some light on the highly staggered growth of the labour markets in these countries. We also noted that countries in the region fall into clearly demarcated categories in this regard. The select group of fast growing countries appear to be well on their way to having fully grown labour markets wherein the category of employees alone accounts for the largest share of women workers. On the contrary, the pace of such change seems to be quite slow and even hampered in the context of the less developed and pre-dominantly agrarian economics. Against this background, the sectoral dimensions of women's employment and the nature of changes taking place in the employment pattern in different countries assume significance. In what follows, we shall, look into some aspects of the sectoral distribution of the female labour force, and see how far such distribution has changed in each country during the recent past.

## SECTORAL SHARES OF EMPLOYMENT

The structural transformation which accompanies the maturing of an economy manifests itself through a decline in the relative shares of output and employment within agriculture and allied sectors of the economy. In the process, there also takes place a corresponding increase in the shares of output and employment in the non-agricultural sectors. In this section we shall limit ourselves to examining how women workers in different Asian countries are distributed among the principal sectors and how such distribution has tended to change over time.

Grouped data describing the percentage shares of women workers in three main sectors, namely: agriculture, industry and services of 12 Asian countries are presented in Table 10 to 12. The first sector includes all countries under major devision 1 of the International Standard Industrial Classification (ISIC) of economic activities which are agriculture, hunting, forestry, logging, and fishing. The industries sector includes activities under major divisions 2-5 of ISIC, namely: mining and quarrying, manufacturing, electricity, gas and water, and construction. Finally under services we have the major divisions such as trade, transport, storage, and communications and financial and business services.

First, we examine the percentage figures for the agricultural sector as given in Table 10. Here we notice an important trait shared by all the countries in Asia that the relative proportion in agriculture out of the total female labour force has declined in all those case where time series data happens to be available. With regard to the magnitude of such a decline, there are, however, significant variations across countries. The most conspicuous decreases can be observed in the fast growing economics, notably in Japan and South Korea. In the context of Singapore and Hong Kong, we notice a virtual depletion of women workers within their already minuscule primary sectors. Among the less developed countries India, Indonesia, Nepal, Sri Lanka and Thailand, the agricultural sector continues to hold well over 40 per cent of the total of women workers in spite of a perceptible fall in the sectoral share during the preceding decades. Nepal, which is probably the least developed country in this group, tops the list with as much as 96 per cent of workers belonging to the agricultural sector in 1981.

What needs to be determined at this juncture, is whether the long term decline in the agricultural sector's share of employment has been accompanied by any noteworthy increase in the shares in the industry and service sectors, a situation which as we noted earlier, has interesting precedents in the economic history of developed countries. A secular increase in the manufacturing sector's share of employment was in fact the most conspicuous feature of economic development in the early stages within the currently industrialised countries of Europe.[9/] The figures

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[9/] It may also be noted that this upward trend is no longer the case in developed countries, especially within the OECD group, where it looks as though the labour absorption capacity of the manufacturing sector has nearly been exhausted. The share of employment in the industries sector has tended to stagnate or decline in these countries during the preceding one or two decades. On the other hand there has also been a phenomenal increase of employment in the services sector of these countries. For a discussion, see ILO, World Labour Report, Vol.1, Chapter 2.

in Tables 11 and 12 suggest that the experience of Asian countries is not very encouraging in this respect.

Regarding levels and trends in the industrial sector, we observe that it is more difficult to interpret the figures in relation to clear cut patterns. In Hong Kong and Singapore, wherein the industrial sector currently accounts for more than 35 per cent of total women workers, the sectoral share of employment in the former has actually come down between 1970 and 1984, and in the latter between 1980 and 1984. In Japan and South Korea, wherein the industrial sector's share does not exceed 30 per cent of the total work force, there has been a consistent increase in the share from 1960 onwards. We may also note that in Korea the trend to increase started from an exceedingly low base (6.2 per cent). In Malaysia also there was a near doubling of the industrial sector's share of employment between 1970 and 1980. In all these fast growing economies of Asia, there have also been interesting changes in the composition of the labour force within the manufacturing sectors. Industries such as food, beverages, and tobacco declined, while textiles, garments, and electronics industries attained rapid expansion.[10]

Among the countries of South East Asia, in Thailand we notice a rising trend between 1960 and 1982 which also started from one of the lowest base levels noted in any country. In Indonesia, there was a marginal increase around the current level of 11.5 per cent between 1971 and 1980, while in the Philippines, there took place a slight decline between 1960 and 1970. Within South Asia, only Sri Lanka appears to have had any increase in sectoral share during the preceding years, currently bringing the proportion close to 12 per cent. The Indian case is notable for having shown a decline in the industrial sector's share of employment between 1971 and 1981.

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[10] Siow-Yue (1986) for discussion of the Singapore and Malaysian experience, and Hyoung Cho (1986) on the Korean and Hong Kong cases. The experience of the Newly Industrialising Countries of Asia has been that the female labour force in the manufacturing sector tended to concentrate in a very limited group of industries. The textiles and apparel manufacturing groups, which has grown as major export industries in both Korea and Hong Kong, have almost entirely depended on female labour. H. Cho (1980) p. 37. These observations also raise several interesting questions about the gender variations in the terms and conditions of employment in the NICs.

When it comes to figures on the employment share of the services sector, the trends are more upbeat. In several countries, the service activities seem to lead the way in employment generation quite ahead of the industries sector. Close to 60 per cent of women workers in Japan and Singapore are currently engaged in service activities. In Hong Kong and South Korea where the sectoral share is above 45 per cent, there have been consistent increase in the proportions from 1960 onwards. In the case of Singapore, the increasing trend has been seen only from 1971 onwards, prior to which there appears to have been a decline in the relative proportions from 1957 onwards. This is quite plausible and consistent with the structural shifts that are said to take place within the services sector in the course of economic growth. It has been argued that the services sector of the economy undergoes structural transformation at some stage, whereby the traditional or old service activities such as personal and domestic service (which tend to be dominant in less developed countries) come to be superseded by new services, having greater emphasis on skill formation such as educational, health, financial, and banking services.11/ At the present stage of development, however, it seems that women enter service sector jobs at the lower end of the pay scale.

Whether or not such structural changes are underway in all the countries, fast growing as well as less developed ones, remains to be established with the help of disaggregated data on the composition of the services sector. The available aggregative data points out that there have been some increases in the services sector's share of employment within the three South East Asian countries of Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand. The levels or trends observed in the South Asian countries are strikingly different in this respect. Among them,

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11/ Y. Sabolo (1975), Chapter 2.

we notice a clear decline in the sectoral share of employment in the case of Sri Lanka between 1963 and 1980/81, while in India and Nepal the proportions remained at extremely low levels even in 1981.

By way of concluding this section, we shall also examine Table 13 which will help us to summarise the lengthy interpretative analysis of the sectoral composition of women workers. The table also helps us to identify more precisely the broad directions as well as the magnitude of changes involving the entry of women into the labour force of various Asian countries. The table presents the percentage of women workers in the total labour force, aggregate as well as divided into the three principal categories of agriculture, industry and services, for two points of time between the 1960 and the 1980s.

The figures in column 11 show that, during the 1980s in as many as five countries, the proportions of women in the total labour force range well above 35 per cent, while in four others the proportions range between 30 to 35 percent. Only in the case of two countries from South Asia, namely, India and Sri Lanka do the percentages fall below 30. It also follows from the table that almost all the countries have registered increases in the percentage share of women workers during the respective periods under review. Only in Japan and Indonesia have the relative proportions remained constant. Special mention may be made of countries like Singapore, Hong Kong and South Korea wherein the percentage shares registered increased from less than 30 per cent levels during the early 1960s.

Next we examine how the sectoral estimates of the share of women workers have changed over time. For making this comparative evaluation, we may set aside the respective figures for the agricultural sector in view of the fact that this sector's share of employment has tended to decline in all the countries we examined. Furthermore, long term changes, if any, in the industries and services sectors are analytically more interesting to us from the point of view of growth and structural transformation in Asian economics. The figures in Table 13 suggest that there have been significant improvements in the relative share of women workers within the industries and service sectors of most countries notably in Japan, Singapore, Hong Kong, South Korea, and Malaysia. Among South East Asian countries, it is Thailand which has had impressive increases, while in Indonesia and Philippines, during the reference period, the relative proportions decreased in the industries sector and increased only in the services sector. In both these countries, however, the share of women workers in the industries and services sectors are conspicuously high in comparison with other countries. Countries of South Asia on the other hand quite clearly do not come upto the standards set by those in East and South East Asia. The highest percentage share of women workers in the industries and services sectors are found in Sri Lanka (close to 22 per cent in 1980/81), while India and Nepal are farther down with the relative proportions at less than 15 per cent. In these countries also, the shares of female workers have tended to increase from the very low levels observed during the 1960s or the 1970s.

To sum up the discussion so far, the labour force data we examined above points to the fact that in a number of Asian countries substantial changes potentially affecting the economic position of women are underway. These changes are clearly linked to the increased entry of women into the labour force along with alterations in their sectoral distribution of economic activity. We also noted that countries in Asia are at various stages of transition from their agrarian background towards ones increasingly based on activities in the services and industrial sectors. Women's share of employment in the modern sectors of the economy have been on the increase in recent times. Countries we examined above fall into clearly demarcated categories in this respect. At the one end is a select group of countries making rapid shifts in the sectoral composition of the labour force, and moving towards a situation which closely corresponds to that of the advanced countries. At the other end, are some countries of South Asia which possibly belong to the most rudimentary stages of structural transformation wherein any distinct improvement by way of women's entry into the labour force of the modern sectors is yet to come. In between, we have a group of middle income countries mostly from South East Asia, at intermediate levels with regard to the various indices examined above.

## OCCUPATIONAL GROUPS IN THE FEMALE LABOUR FORCE

Finally we move on to the question of skill composition of the female labour force. The observed trend towards increased participation of women in economic activity can set the stage for a more egalitarian distribution of income only in the event that women are absorbed into the relatively more skill intensive and also highly paid categories of employment. Therefore, in the remaining part of this paper we address ourselves to the question as to how far the female labour force in Asian countries has undergone changes in more recent times in terms of occupational categories and therefore still-distribution. We must, however, concede at the outset that the secondary data examined in this study, being highly aggregative in nature, does not throw much light on the question of skill differentiation of the female labour force in various countries.

We take a look at some time series data based on the International Standard for Classification of Occupations which is available for the following categories: professional, technical and related workers; administrative and managerial workers; clerical and related workers; production workers, transport equipment operators and labourers; sales workers and service workers. These categories in the manner listed above also represent the rough order of skill formation within the non-agricultural sectors of the economy. As was done in the case of the sectoral composition of the labour force, here also we shall examine two sets of data. The first set of figures (see Tables 14-16) deals with the percentage distribution of total women workers under various occupational categories at selected intervals during the preceding decades. The second set of figures in Tables 17 and 18 describes the percentage of women workers out of the total labour force in each occupational category for two points of time between the early 1960s and 1980s.

We start with the most skill intensive category of the labour force, viz., professional, technical and related workers, for which the relevant figures are given in Table 14. The inter-regional differences, in this regard, suggest that there are interesting variations in the general pattern we observed earlier in the context of the sectoral composition of labour force. It looks as though the skill distribution of the female labour force in all Asian countries is not as strongly linked to the levels of economic growth as was found to be the case with sectoral distribution. Nonetheless, Japan and Singapore lead the table with more than 10 per cent of women workers employed as professional and technical workers during 1984. In the case of Japan, we also notice sustained increases in the relative share of such workers during the period from 1960 onwards. Long term increases in the relative proportions of professional workers can be seen in the context of most countries, in particular, Hong Kong, South Korea, Malaysia, the Philippines, and also Sri Lanka. The last two in the list stand out for having attained greater proportions of professional workers among women even compared to some of the fast growing economics of Asia. In fact, these figures point to the impressive achievements, on the supply side of the labour market in the countries concerned, towards improving the skill composition of the labour force through investments in educational facilities.

Administrative and managerial workers may be regarded as the upper end of the skilled labour force. As such the relative share of this category of workers (both male and female) rarely exceeds 3 to 4 per cent of the labour force even in the case of the economically advanced countries of Europe.[12/] Figures furnished in Table 14 seem to suggest that there exist, in many Asian countries, formidable barriers to the entry of women into this category of the labour force. Japan is a typical case. With all the impressive strides at the economic front, the proportion of women workers in the managerial category of Japan remained at a level of 0.6 per cent in 1984. Possibly the worst case is South Korea, where the corresponding proportion was only 0.1 per cent during the same year. The only notable exception is Singapore, where the proportion of administrative and managerial workers among women

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12/ ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1984.
Tables on occupational distribution.

increased from 0.3 per cent in 1957 to 2.7 per cent by 1984. Some improvement in the proportionate share came about in Hong Kong also during the same period. Other countries of Asia where worthwhile increases under this category have been recorded are the Philippines and Thailand. However, in both of these countries, the relative proportions have remained at less than 1 per cent of the female labour force during the 1980s.

Lower in the ranking with regard to skill formation, but nonetheless far more important to the development of the modern sectors of the economy, is the third occupational category of clerical and related workers. From Table 15 it follows that Japan, Hong Kong, and Singapore have recorded significant increases in the relative share of this group during the period from 1960s onwards. The most dramatic increase is found to have taken place in Singapore where currently more than 30 per cent of women workers are employed under clerical and related categories. In South Korea and Malaysia, though there have been notable increases during the period under review, presently the relative share of clerical workers is not more than 10 per cent of the total female labour force. Among the less developed countries, the Philippines is ahead of the rest with more than 6 per cent of workers employed under clerical categories. Some improvement in the relative share can also be seen in the context of Sri Lanka and Thailand. As for the rest of the countries, it is the same familiar picture as noted in the case of other occupational categories.

Table 15 also gives the relative proportions under the occupational group, production workers, transport equipment operators, and labourers, in different countries. As one would expect, the figures which describe the extent of employment within manufacturing activities have close correspondence to estimates we examined earlier on the industrial sector's share of total female labour force. The present estimates, however, are highly aggregative and, as such, they throw little light on the skill composition of the labour force within the manufacturing sectors. The figures in Table 15 point to the vast regional variation with regard to the relative volume of production related workers among the female labour force. Among the countries, Hong Kong takes the lead by bringing about the largest concentration of women workers under this group, in spite of a decline in their relative proportion between 1971 and 1984. Such decline can also be noted in the context of Singapore between 1980 and 1984. We may also note in this context that both in Hong Kong and Singapore industrialisation took place during the 1960s and 1970s, with a sizable concentration of women in the relatively less skill intensive sectors such as textiles, garment making, footwear, and electronic components. It needs to be ascertained whether the present decline in the relative share of production workers in these countries is the outcome of any industrial restructuring towards more skill intensive categories of employment. If it were the case, a still more interesting issue to be pursued, with the help of further disaggregated data, would be whether and how far women partake in employment opportunities within the more skill intensive occupational groups.

We also notice from the table that both Japan and South Korea, where currently more than 20 per cent of the female labour force are production workers, reported consistent increases in the relative share of this group during the period from 1960 onwards. Some increase, though of a lesser order, has also been reported in the case of Malaysia. Among the less developed countries, Sri Lanka and Indonesia have registered notable improvements in the percentage share of production workers during the respective periods under review. The increase recorded in Thailand also requires special mention in view of the higher labour force participation rates prevalent there. The Philippines appears to be the only case which has had a major decline in the percentage share of production workers during the 1960s and 1970s. Any attempt to explain such a decline also calls for a careful assessment of the performance of the Philippines' economy, in particular, the manufacturing sector during the period under review.

The remaining two occupational categories, sales workers and service workers, described in Table 16 provide some further break down of the total female workers within the services sector of the economy. In the case of these two occupational groups we also notice that the fast growing economics of Asia tend to show larger and more often consistent increases in the relative share of workers. Among them, South Korea, where currently sales and service workers respectively account for more than 15 per cent of women workers, happens to have registered the fastest increase in the relative proportion from 1960 onwards. In the case of Japan, where currently the figures range well above 10 per cent, there has not been any significant increase over the initial levels during the period under review. The same observation holds for Singapore in the case of sales workers. It appears that while an increase in the percentage share of sales workers has been found in most countries, it is not necessarily so in the case of service workers. Among the less industrialised countries from South East Asia, Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand have had impressive gains in the relative shares of sales workers. Within South Asia, only Sri Lanka has had any substantial increase in the relative proportion of workers which was only specific to the category of service workers. Other countries of South Asia, by and large, have yet to bring about any sizable increase in the share of either sales or service workers.

Finally, by way of concluding this study, we also take a look at the relative proportion of women workers in the various occupational categories at two comparable points of time. The estimates pertaining to the 1980s are given in Table 17, and those of the 1960s or 1970s in Table 18. The figures are quite instructive as they give a good deal of insight into the general structure as well as the direction of changes in sex-wise distribution of employment in various skill categories across countries of Asia.

While examining these figures, we also find that the countries of South Asia belong to a group of exceptional cases marked by low occupation-wise composition of female employment. If, on the other hand, we choose to set aside the South Asian countries, we could almost certainly arrive at a more optimistic assessment of the situation. The figures in Table 17 bring out that in a number of countries belonging to East and South East Asia, the proportion of women in the more skill intensive categories of employment has reached fairly respectable levels by the time of the 1980s. To be more specific, we could say that the respective proportion range is close to or above 40 per cent of the total employment.

In the first skill category, viz., professional, technical, and related workers, it is found that women account for more than 45 per cent of the total employment in the countries of Japan, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, and Thailand. Within the same category not less than 35 per cent of the total employment is held by women in Hong Kong, Indonesia, South Korea, Malaysia, and Singapore.[13/] However, further into the list when it comes to the administration and managerial category of workers, there is little room for complacency, for this group by far continues to remain a male preserve in most countries. Only in the context of one country, the Philippines, do we come across women holding at least a quarter of the total administrative and managerial jobs. In this regard, the figures for Japan and South Korea which seem to suggest that they come closer to the situation noted in some of the less industrialised countries, arouse some curiosity. However, these proportions have tended to increase in most countries over the situation in preceding decades as shown in Table 18.

The picture looks different when we examine the remaining occupational categories. During the 1980s under the group 'clerical and related workers', women accounted for more than 40 per cent of the total employees of the countries of Hong Kong, Japan, Malaysia, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. Also in the case of Indonesia, Japan, South Korea, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand, we find that more than 45 per cent of the total employment under services was performed by female workers. The relative shares of employment by women within the occupational group 'production and related activities' in most countries do not measure up to the standards set by other skill

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[13/] It may also be noted in this context that it is common for women to be heavily represented in professional jobs due to the concentration of women in teaching, nursing and other jobs which are traditionally in the female domain. For a discussion of the Korean situation H. Cho (1986) pp. 27-30 and also the Malaysian case Siow-Yue (1986).

categories like sales and services. They exceed a quarter share of the total employment only in the following countries, viz., Indonesia, Japan, South Korea, the Philippines, Singapore, and Thailand. A question which requires further examination is to what extent the increased influx of women in certain sectors and occupations has led to a lowering of pay levels, either generally or in those specific occupations. Occupational data on pay differentials between men and women is scant, but there is reason to believe that women are recruited to a large extent into low-paid jobs and that the relative pay level of those jobs may have been reduced. This question is to be further examined in a series of country case studies by ARTEP in 1987.

The comparative estimates furnished in Tables 17 and 18, however, point to one promising aspect of the employment situation. All over Asia, under most occupational categories there have been appreciable increases in the relative share of female employment during the respective periods under review. It also appears that these increases are part of a continuing upward trend in the context of the concerned countries. The fast growing economics of Asia only have led the way in this field, making progress towards attaining a more balanced distribution of employment between sexes. Even though it may be argued that a large number of the new entrants to the labour market have entered at the lower level of the pay scale, there is also evidence in some of the less 'industrialised countries', notably in South East Asia, that the ratios of female employment in some of the skill categories are fairly high, and that these ratios have tended to increase over time. They suggest that, in Asian countries (barring the South Asian cases) irrespective of the levels of economic development, there is a perceived tendency towards a more equitable sharing of employment opportunities across gender groups within some of the skill intensive categories. Economic growth taking place in these countries seems to have an all-important catalytic role in accelerating the pace of these distributional changes within the labour force. One can only hope that these changes will eventually materialise in the context of the countries in South Asia.

## TABLE 1

### GNP per Capita and Its Average Annual Growth Rate in Asian Countries

| Sl No.<br>(1) | Countries<br>(2) | GNP per capita in 1984 (US Dollars)<br>(3) | Rate of growth in 1985 (Percentage)<br>(4) |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 130 | 0.6 |
| 2. | Burma | 180 | 2.3 |
| 3. | China | 310 | 4.5 |
| 4. | Hong Kong | 6,330 | 6.2 |
| 5. | India | 260 | 1.6 |
| 6. | Indonesia | 540 | 4.9 |
| 7. | Japan | 10,630 | 4.7 |
| 8. | Kampuchea | n.a. | n.a. |
| 9. | Korea - Rep. | 2,110 | 6.6 |
| 10. | Laos | n.a. | n.a. |
| 11. | Malaysia | 1,980 | 4.5 |
| 12. | Nepal | 160 | 0.2 |
| 13. | Pakistan | 380 | 2.5 |
| 14. | Philippines | 660 | 2.6 |
| 15. | Singapore | 7,260 | 7.8 |
| 16. | Sri Lanka | 360 | 2.9 |
| 17. | Thailand | 860 | 4.2 |
| 18. | Vietname | n.a. | n.a. |

Source: The World Development Report (1986) Table 1.

TABLE 2

## Population, Labour Force and Worker Participation Rates of Women in Asian Countries

| Sl. No.<br>(1) | Country<br>(2) | Year<br>(3) | Population (000)<br>(4) | Labour force (000)<br>(5) | Participation rate (percentage)<br>(6) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1981 | 42,201 | 5,306 | 12.6 |
| 2. | Burma | 1975 | 15,762 | 4,691 | 29.8 |
| 3. | China | 1982 | -- | 227,844 | -- |
| 4. | Hong Kong | 1984 | 2,548 | 975 | 38.3 |
| 5. | India | 1981 | 321,357 | 63,525 | 19.8 |
| 6. | Indonesia | 1980 | 73,825 | 17,111 | 23.2 |
| 7. | Japan | 1984 | 60,980 | 23,470 | 38.5 |
| 8. | Kampuchea | 1975 | 4,052 | 1,285 | 31.7 |
| 9. | Korea-Rep | 1984 | 20,099 | 5,668 | 28.2 |
| 10. | Laos | 1975 | 1,637 | 723 | 44.2 |
| 11. | Malaysia | 1980 | 6,547 | 1,658 | 25.3 |
| 12. | Nepal | 1981 | 7,420 | 2,371 | 31.9 |
| 13. | Pakistan | 1981 | 40,021 | 835 | 2.1 |
| 14. | Philippines | 1980 | 23,970 | 6,126 | 25.6 |
| 15. | Singapore | 1984 | 1,260 | 439 | 34.8 |
| 16. | Sri Lanka | 1980/81 | 7,581 | 1,606 | 21.2 |
| 17. | Thailand | 1982 | 24,188 | 12,249 | 50.6 |
| 18. | Vietnam | 1975 | 21,654 | 8,588 | 39.7 |

Source:

1. Estimates for Burma, Kampuchea, Laos, and Vietnam from Noeleen Heyzer (1985), Table 1.
2. Estimates of labour force in China refers to those in the age group 15+ years and has been obtained from Y. Saito and N. Ogava (1986), Table 1.
3. For all other countries, data have been obtained from ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics 1984 and 1985.

TABLE 3

## Annual Average Rate of Growth of Population and Labour Force of Women in Selected Asian Countries

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Years (3) | Population (per cent) (4) | Labour force (per cent) (5) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974-81 | 2.96 | 29.43 |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1960-84 | 2.27 | 4.59 |
| 3. | India | 1971-81 | 1.98 | 7.34 |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971-80 | 2.30 | 2.87 |
| 5. | Japan | 1960-84 | 1.04 | 1.30 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960-84 | 2.02 | 4.11 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970-80 | 2.39 | 3.95 |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971-81 | 2.60 | 5.27 |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960-80 | 2.94 | 5.29 |
| 10. | Singapore | 1960-84 | 2.29 | 6.22 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1960-80 | 2.25 | 4.57 |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960-82 | 2.83 | 2.79 |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

TABLE 4:

### Trends in Labour Force Participation Rates of Women of Working Age Groups in Asian Countries

(in percentages)

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Years to which data corresponds (3) | 1960s (4) | 1970s (5) | 1980s (6) | 1984 (7) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974,81 | -- | 3.4 | 12.1 | -- |
| 2. | Burma | 1975 | -- | 45.9 | -- | -- |
| 3. | China | 1982 | -- | 70.1 | -- | -- |
| 4. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,81,84 | 38.8 | 46.0 | 53.7 | 54.7 |
| 5. | India* | 1971,81 | -- | 19.6 | 31.9 | -- |
| 6. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 36.2 | 37.7 | -- |
| 7. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 53.8 | 54.4 | 51.6 | 54.5 |
| 8. | Kampuchea | 1975 | -- | 52.2 | -- | -- |
| 9. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 29.4 | 44.4 | 41.5 | 42.9 |
| 10. | Laos | 1975 | -- | 70.0 | -- | -- |
| 11. | Malaysia | 1970,80 | -- | 38.4 | 41.4 | -- |
| 12. | Nepal* | 1971,81 | -- | 36.5 | 46.0 | -- |
| 13. | Pakistan* | 1981 | -- | -- | 3.2 | -- |
| 14. | Philippines | 1960,70,80 | 27.6 | 35.1 | 44.6 | -- |
| 15. | Singapore | 1957,70,80,84 | 22.5 | 31.1 | 47.1 | 56.5 |
| 16. | Sri Lanka | 1963,71,80,81 | 24.2 | 31.9 | 33.7* | -- |
| 17. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 85.4 | 77.9 | 83.0 | -- |
| 18. | Vietnam | 1975 | -- | 61.3 | -- | -- |

Note: *For working age groups in these countries data specially refers to the age groups 15-60 years. In the case of Burma, Kampuchea, Laos and Vietnam the figures refer to those in the age group 15+. For all other countries data refer to the age groups 15-64 years.

Source: For Burma, Kampuchea, Laos and Vietnam from N. Heyzer (1986) Table 1. For China, from Y. Saito and N. Ogawa (1980). For all other countries from the ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

**TABLE 5:**

## Trends in Female Labour Force Participation Rate of Age Groups 0-15 in Selected Asian Countries

(percentages)

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Years to which data corresponds (3) | 1960s (4) | 1970s (5) | 1980s (6) | 1984 (7) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974,81 | -- | 1.6 | 11.1 | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,81,84 | 2.0 | 3.1 | -- | -- |
| 3. | India | 1971,81 | -- | 2.6 | 4.3 | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 3.9 | 2.8 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 1.0 | 1.1 | 0.4 | 0.2 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970,80 | -- | 2.6 | 2.0 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971 | -- | 10.4 | -- | -- |
| 9. | Pakistan | 1981 | -- | 0.9 | -- | -- |
| 10. | Philippines | 1960,70 | 2.7 | 3.6 | -- | -- |
| 11. | Singapore | 1957,70,80,84 | 1.1 | 1.0 | 0.6 | -- |
| 12. | Sri Lanka | 1963,71,80,81 | 1.4 | 1.3 | 1.1 | -- |
| 13. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 10.6 | 11.7 | 6.9 | -- |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

**TABLE 6:**

## Trends in Female Labour Force Participation Rates of Age Groups 15-24 on Selected Asian Countries

(in percentages)

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Years to which data corresponds (3) | 1960s (4) | 1970s (5) | 1980s (6) | 1984 (7) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974,81 | -- | 3.9 | 14.0 | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,81,84 | 50.0 | 62.3 | 61.3 | 64.1 |
| 3. | India | 1971,81 | -- | 16.7 | 27.8 | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 30.0 | 32.1 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 58.2 | 54.7 | 44.4 | 44.3 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 28.0 | 41.9 | 43.4 | 32.9 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970,80 | -- | 38.0 | 42.6 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971,81 | -- | 42.6 | 49.4 | -- |
| 9. | Pakistan | 1981 | -- | -- | 3.6 | -- |
| 10. | Philippines | 1960,70,80 | 28.2 | 32.9 | 34.7 | -- |
| 11. | Singapore | 1957,70,80,84 | 23.4 | 48.0 | 64.7 | 59.9 |
| 12. | Sri Lanka | 1963,71 | 25.2 | 34.0 | -- | -- |
| 13. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 85.7 | 77.9 | 76.6 | -- |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

### TABLE 7:

### Percentage of Employees among Women Workers in Selected Asian Countries

| Sl. No.<br>(1) | Country<br>(2) | Years to which data corresponds<br>(3) | 1960s<br>(4) | 1970s<br>(5) | 1980s<br>(6) | 1984<br>(7) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | -- | 18.5 | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,81,84 | 79.3 | 86.2 | 89.2 | 89.5 |
| 3. | India | 1971, | -- | 10.5 | -- | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 25.9 | 22.2 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 41.6 | 52.7 | 62.6 | 64.7 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 15.3 | 29.5 | 34.8 | 45.1 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1980 | -- | -- | 49.5 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971,81 | -- | 3.7 | 3.8 | -- |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960,70 | 31.2 | 41.0 | -- | -- |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957,70,80,84 | 72.1 | 68.4 | 86.2 | 87.9 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963,71,80,81 | 75.7 | 53.2 | 52.2 | -- |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 6.5 | 10.4 | 19.5 | -- |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

### TABLE 8:

### Percentage of Employers and Own Account Workers Among Women Workers in Selected Asian Countries

| Sl. No.<br>(1) | Country<br>(2) | Years to which data corresponds<br>(3) | 1960s<br>(4) | 1970s<br>(5) | 1980s<br>(6) | 1984<br>(7) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | -- | 20.1 | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,81,84 | 9.8 | 5.6 | 4.4 | 3.1 |
| 3. | India | 1971, | -- | 5.8 | -- | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 30.5 | 44.9 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 13.4 | 13.6 | 11.3 | 12.6 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 20.9 | 17.4 | 18.5 | 20.9 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1980 | -- | -- | 24.5 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971,81 | -- | 89.2 | 90.3 | -- |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960,70 | 25.9 | 23.3 | -- | -- |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957,70,80,84 | 14.0 | 8.6 | 6.5 | 5.5 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963,71,80,81 | 8.3 | 8.4 | 11.5 | -- |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960,70,80 | 11.2 | 12.0 | 17.4 | -- |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

TABLE 9:

### Percentage Share of Unpaid Family Workers among Women Workers in Selected Asian Countries

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Years to which data corresponds (3) | 1960s (4) | 1970s (5) | 1980s (6) | 1984 (7) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | -- | 57.7 | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,81,84 | 9.5 | 3.8 | 2.8 | 3.8 |
| 3. | India | 1971, | -- | 3.6 | -- | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 36.3 | 28.7 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 44.4 | 32.1 | 24.1 | 19.7 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 57.3 | 51.4 | 40.0 | 31.8 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1980, | -- | -- | 16.5 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971,81 | -- | 7.2 | 4.0 | -- |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960,70 | 32.3 | 27.0 | -- | -- |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957,70,80,84 | 11.6 | 5.3 | 3.6 | 3.6 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963,71,80,81 | 6.0 | 8.2 | 13.2 | -- |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 81.7 | 76.0 | 65.1 | 58.6 |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

TABLE 10:

### Sectoral Distribution of Women Workers - Percentage Share of Agricultural Sector in Selected Asian Countries

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Years to which data corresponds (3) | 1960s (4) | 1970s (5) | 1980s (6) | 1984 (7) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | -- | 70.0 | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,81,84 | 8.9 | 4.1 | 1.8 | 0.9 |
| 3. | India | 1971,81 | -- | 82.6 | 57.5 | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 59.9 | 51.3 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 42.9 | 25.8 | 13.4 | 10.5 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 65.9 | 58.9 | 43.3 | 29.5 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970,80 | -- | 53.6 | 43.5 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971,81 | -- | 98.2 | 95.7 | -- |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960,70 | 35.0 | 31.4 | -- | -- |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957,70,80,84 | 16.3 | 2.7 | 0.8 | 0.5 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963,71,80,81 | 57.9 | 43.3 | 42.5 | -- |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 86.0 | 82.7 | 67.4 | -- |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

TABLE 11:

### Sectoral Distribution of Women Workers - Percentage Share of the Industries Sector in Selected Asian Countries

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Years to which date corresponds (3) | 1960s (4) | 1970s (5) | 1980s (6) | 1984 (7) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | -- | 4.2 | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1960,70,80,84 | 48.7 | 58.6 | 54.5 | 49.8 |
| 3. | India | 1971,81 | -- | 8.1 | 6.6 | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 10.9 | 11.5 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 20.0 | 25.6 | 25.8 | 27.8 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 6.2 | 15.1 | 21.4 | 23.7 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970,80 | -- | 8.1 | 15.6 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971,81 | -- | 0.5 | 0.2 | -- |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960,70 | 20.9 | 19.6 | -- | -- |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957,70,80,84 | 16.3 | 27.8 | 40.8 | 36.0 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963,71,80,81 | 9.2 | 8.8 | 11.8 | -- |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 2.9 | 4.3 | 7.7 | 8.1 |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

TABLE 12:

### Sectoral Distribution of Women Workers - Percentage Share of the Services Sector in Selected Asian Countries

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Years to which data corresponds (3) | 1960s (4) | 1970s (5) | 1980s (6) | 1984 (7) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | -- | 22.1 | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,81,84 | 39.2 | 31.9 | 41.8 | 48.4 |
| 3. | India | 1971,81 | -- | 8.1 | 6.7 | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 21.9 | 33.1 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 36.3 | 47.0 | 58.6 | 58.7 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 21.4 | 24.4 | 28.6 | 44.6 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970,80 | -- | 19.4 | 29.1 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971,81 | -- | 1.3 | 2.7 | -- |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960,70 | 32.6 | 39.8 | -- | -- |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957,70,80,84 | 65.1 | 51.9 | 54.8 | 62.9 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963,71,80,81 | 28.1 | 13.9 | 19.9 | -- |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 9.3 | 11.6 | 18.0 | 20.0 |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

**TABLE 13:**

## Percentage Share of Women Workers in Various Sectors of the Economy

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Year to which data corresponds (3) | 1960s/1970s Agricul-tural (4) | 1960s/1970s Industry (5) | 1960s/1970s Services (6) | 1960s/1970s Total (7) | 1980s Agricul-tural (8) | 1980s Industry (9) | 1980s Services (10) | 1980s Total (11) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | 3.9 | 3.7 | 6.0 | 4.2 | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961, 1984 | 35.8 | 27.9 | 28.3 | 28.6 | 29.7 | 40.0 | 34.2 | 36.9 |
| 3. | India | 1971, 1981 | 19.9 | 12.4 | 9.6 | 17.4 | 23.9 | 13.6 | 11.0 | 26.0 |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971, 1980 | 31.8 | 37.6 | 31.8 | 33.1 | 31.3 | 30.8 | 35.3 | 32.8 |
| 5. | Japan | 1960, 1984 | 51.8 | 26.7 | 38.0 | 39.1 | 48.0 | 32.5 | 42.7 | 39.6 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960, 1984 | 30.4 | 19.6 | 26.6 | 28.6 | 42.7 | 30.3 | 58.3 | 37.8 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970, 1980 | 37.7 | 21.2 | 22.7 | 32.6 | 39.0 | 30.2 | 27.3 | 33.7 |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971, 1981 | 30.4 | 11.4 | 9.0 | 29.2 | 36.4 | 13.9 | 14.4 | 34.6 |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960, 1970 | 14.8 | 43.4 | 44.1 | 25.6 | 19.5 | 39.5 | 47.4 | 31.9 |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957, 1984 | 34.5 | 14.4 | 16.9 | 18.0 | 23.3 | 35.6 | 37.0 | 36.4 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963, 1980,81 | 24.7 | 15.8 | 16.3 | 20.8 | 28.7 | 22.5 | 22.7 | 27.4 |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960, 1982 | 50.8 | 32.8 | 38.9 | 48.4 | 48.6 | 37.2 | 47.2 | 47.5 |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

**TABLE 14:**

## Percentage Share of Occupational Groups - (1) Professional, Technical and Related Workers and (2) Administrative and Managerial Workers - out of Total Women Workers in Asian Countries

| Sl. No. | Countries | Years to which data corresponds | Professional, Technical and related workers | | | | Administrative and managerial workers | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | 1960s | 1970s | 1980s | 1984 | 1960s | 1970s | 1980s | 1984 |
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) | (10) | (11) |
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | -- | 2.5 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,84 | 6.1 | 6.5 | -- | 6.8 | 0.9 | 1.6 | -- | 1.3 |
| 3. | India | 1971,81 | -- | 2.7 | 2.3 | -- | -- | 0.1 | 0.1 | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 2.1 | 3.2 | -- | -- | -- | 0.1 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70.80,84 | 4.5 | 6.1 | 9.9 | 10.2 | 0.2 | 0.5 | 0.8 | 0.6 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 1.4 | 2.0 | 3.3 | 4.6 | 0.8 | 0.1 | -- | 0.1 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970,80 | -- | 4.5 | 7.0 | -- | -- | 0.1 | 0.2 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971, | -- | 0.1 | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- | -- |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960,70,80 | 5.5 | 9.6 | 10.6 | -- | 0.3 | 1.0 | 0.8 | -- |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957,70,80 | 9.3 | 11.8 | 9.4 | 10.7 | 0.3 | 0.3 | 1.8 | 2.7 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963,70,80,81 | 7.6 | 6.3 | 8.2 | -- | 0.1 | 0.1 | 0.2 | -- |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 0.9 | 1.5 | 3.0 | -- | 0.2 | -- | 0.7 | -- |

__Source:__ ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

**TABLE 15:**

### Percentage Share of Occupational Groups - (1) Clerical and Related Workers and (2) Production Workers, Transport Equipment Operators and Labourers - out of Total Women Workers in Asian Countries

| Sl. No. | Countries | Years to which data corresponds | Clerical and related workers | | | | Prod. Workers, Tranport, Equipment operators and Labourees | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | 1960s | 1970s | 1980s | 1984 | 1960s | 1970s | 1980s | 1984 |
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) | (10) | (11) |
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | -- | 0.2 | -- | -- | -- | 12.2 | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961,71,84 | 3.5 | 7.3 | -- | 23.7 | 46.4 | 54.1 | -- | 43.1 |
| 3. | India | 1971,81 | -- | 0.7 | 0.8 | -- | -- | 4.9 | 6.8 | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 1.1 | 1.5 | -- | -- | 11.2 | 13.9 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 9.7 | 18.5 | 23.2 | 23.9 | 21.3 | 23.9 | 24.2 | 26.5 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 0.5 | 2.8 | 8.0 | 9.7 | 6.8 | 14.5 | 18.6 | 20.6 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970,80 | -- | 3.5 | 9.1 | -- | -- | 9.0 | 14.5 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971, | -- | 0.1 | -- | -- | -- | 0.6 | -- | -- |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960,70,80 | 1.9 | 3.7 | 6.0 | -- | 20.4 | 18.6 | 13.3 | -- |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957,70,80 | 5.8 | 13.9 | 25.7 | 30.5 | 25.1 | 25.1 | 34.0 | 27.1 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963,70,80,81 | 1.0 | 1.8 | 3.1 | -- | 12.8 | 11.3 | 16.1 | -- |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960,70,82 | 0.3 | 0.8 | 1.6 | -- | 4.2 | 5.0 | 8.0 | -- |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

**TABLE 16:**

## Percentage Share of Occupational Groups - (1) Sales Workers and (2) Service Workers - out of Total Women Workers in Asian Countries

| Sl. No. | Countries | Years to which data corresponds | Sales workers | | | | Service workers | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | | 1960s | 1970s | 1980s | 1984 | 1960s | 1970s | 1980s | 1984 |
| (1) | (2) | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) | (7) | (8) | (9) | (10) | (11) |
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974, | -- | 1.3 | -- | -- | -- | 10.2 | -- | -- |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1971,84 | -- | 6.1 | -- | 8.1 | -- | 14.9 | -- | 15.3 |
| 3. | India | 1971,81 | -- | 1.5 | 1.1 | -- | -- | 3.1 | 1.9 | -- |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971,80 | -- | 13.4 | 18.2 | -- | -- | 4.9 | 7.6 | -- |
| 5. | Japan | 1960,70,80,84 | 11.4 | 12.4 | 14.7 | 13.9 | 11.0 | 11.4 | 11.7 | 11.5 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960,70,80,84 | 9.1 | 9.5 | 10.8 | 17.5 | 9.2 | 10.6 | 9.2 | 16.0 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970,80 | -- | 4.2 | 6.0 | -- | -- | 7.3 | 7.4 | -- |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971, | -- | 0.5 | -- | -- | -- | 0.4 | -- | -- |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960,70,80 | 11.2 | 11.6 | 18.9 | -- | 14.9 | 15.2 | 13.3 | -- |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957,70.80,84 | 10.5 | 8.6 | 11.9 | 12.3 | 34.9 | 19.3 | 13.2 | 15.3 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963,70,80,81 | 1.7 | 1.5 | 3.6 | -- | -- | 4.0 | 4.5 | -- |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960,70,80 | 6.1 | 5.8 | 11.5 | -- | 1.9 | 3.0 | 3.1 | -- |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

TABLE 17:

### Percentage of Women Workers out of Total Workers in Various Occupational Categories during the 1980s

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Year which the data represents (3) | Professional, technical and related workers (4) | Administrative and managerial workers (5) | Clerical and related workers (6) | Production workers (7) | Sales workers (8) | Service workers (9) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Hong Kong | 1984 | 37.8 | 14.0 | 52.8 | 34.3 | 27.4 | 34.1 |
| 2. | India | 1981 | 20.6 | 2.5 | 6.4 | 12.7 | 6.7 | 18.0 |
| 3. | Indonesia | 1980 | 35.1 | 12.8 | 13.5 | 24.8 | 47.2 | 54.8 |
| 4. | Japan | 1984 | 45.5 | 6.1 | 55.5 | 29.3 | 37.5 | 54.9 |
| 5. | Korea-Rep. | 1984 | 33.8 | 2.9 | 33.6 | 27.0 | 46.8 | 60.7 |
| 6. | Malaysia | 1980 | 38.2 | 8.3 | 43.3 | 21.6 | 24.8 | 32.1 |
| 7. | Philippines | 1980 | 60.9 | 27.5 | 47.1 | 26.7 | 66.0 | 58.7 |
| 8. | Singapore | 1984 | 39.4 | 17.4 | 67.1 | 26.2 | 32.7 | 50.1 |
| 9. | Sri Lanka | 1980,81 | 48.4 | 9.7 | 18.3 | 18.3 | 14.4 | 28.7 |
| 10. | Thailand | 1982 | 48.0 | 19.8 | 43.4 | 31.0 | 62.9 | 47.1 |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

**TABLE 18:**

## Percentage of Women Workers out of Total Workers in Various Occupational Categories during the 1960s and 1970s

| Sl. No. (1) | Country (2) | Year which the data represents (3) | Professional, technical and related workers (4) | Administrative and managerial workers (5) | Clerical and related workers (6) | Production workers (7) | Sales workers (8) | Service workers (9) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | Bangladesh | 1974 | 5.9 | 1.5 | 1.1 | 4.7 | 1.2 | 23.1 |
| 2. | Hong Kong | 1961 | 37.7 | 6.9 | 16.3 | 29.6 | 18.1 | 37.1 |
| 3. | India | 1971 | 17.7 | 1.7 | 4.0 | 8.4 | 6.1 | 16.7 |
| 4. | Indonesia | 1971 | 31.1 | 19.4 | 11.2 | 31.4 | 43.9 | 42.8 |
| 5. | Japan | 1960 | 35.5 | 4.0 | 37.4 | 26.9 | 41.7 | 43.1 |
| 6. | Korea-Rep. | 1960 | 17.7 | 18.4 | 5.6 | 19.6 | 33.3 | 33.7 |
| 7. | Malaysia | 1970 | 33.9 | 3.1 | 25.3 | 16.5 | 18.2 | 31.8 |
| 8. | Nepal | 1971 | 7.3 | 12.3 | 10.0 | 13.7 | 12.1 | 23.6 |
| 9. | Philippines | 1960 | 51.1 | 14.5 | 23.0 | 41.4 | 50.7 | 49.0 |
| 10. | Singapore | 1957 | 36.5 | 3.8 | 10.1 | 14.3 | 10.0 | 41.8 |
| 11. | Sri Lanka | 1963 | 38.7 | 3.4 | 5.7 | 14.1 | 5.8 | 18.4 |
| 12. | Thailand | 1960 | 33.9 | 9.7 | 13.3 | 32.8 | 55.8 | 30.5 |

Source: ILO, Year Book of Labour Statistics, Various issues.

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# FAMILY RELATED RESPONSIBILITIES OF WOMEN WORKERS AND DIVERSIFICATION OF TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

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## INTRODUCTION

Planners and policymakers recognise that, despite a general increase in female labour force participation rates (FLFPR)[1] in the Asian region, the pattern of women's employment remains quite different from that of their male counterparts.[2] A large number of women workers still face a limited range of job opportunities and remain associated with jobs characterised by low skills, low productivity and low wages. Existing studies indicate that, in contrast, male workers are generally engaged in a wider range of occupations, including those that entail higher skills and, therefore, generate greater income levels. This often results from their better access to training and employment opportunities. Since women account for approximately half of a country's total human resources, the continuance of such an unequal pattern of employment for them will, in general, have negative consequences for overall socio-economic development.

It is further recognised that women tend to participate less in economic activity than men. This is mainly because of their primary role, in most societies, as homemaker with family responsibilities and, also, because of the social, cultural and religious norms and restrictions they face.[3/] Additionally, it has been observed that age, marital status, fertility levels, rural/urban residence, and educational attainment have a significant impact on female labour force participation.[4/]

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[1] Female Labour Force Participation Rate - Female Labour Force/ total female population x 100.

[2] See, for example, Linda Lim, Women in the Economy, Series 1, ESCAP Bangkok 1985.

Planners and policymakers, in their efforts with respect to women workers, should be concerned with the interaction of population characteristics (such as fertility, age distribution, family structures, etc.) and labour issues.

This paper will, therefore, focus on the relevance of such demographic factors to discussions of, and action programmes for, the diversification of training and employment opportunities for women workers. It will also discuss various factors for possible consideration in formulating action plans for such diversification, based on a review and analysis of age-specific patterns of the FLFPR in Asian countries, emphasising fertility behaviour, marriage, and family responsibilities. These patterns are derived from various studies and publications discussing differentials in the labour force participation, and the roles of women in society.[5/]

These cross-sectional patterns suggest that planning for women's employment cannot be based on taking all women as a heterogeneous category. Instead, it requires looking at women over their life-span, entering and leaving the labour force more than once, and relating their participation and work patterns to the development of the family over time.

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[3/] N. Ogawa, Sex Differentials in Labour Force Participation and Earnings in Japan, Draft Paper, ESCAP, June 1986.

[4/] Chia Siow-Yue: Women in the Malaysian Economy: Draft Paper, ESCAP, Bangkok, June 1986.

[5/] The discussion in this section is largely drawn from L. Lim "Women in the Economy: Employment", Series I. Status of Women in Asia and the Pacific, Bangkok 1986.

## AGE-SPECIFIC TRENDS AND PATTERNS OF FLFPR IN ASIAN COUNTRIES

Females participating in the labour force, since they naturally show different patterns, should not be considered as a homogeneous group. There are several significant demographic features which may be noted. One such feature, the age-specific female labour force participation rate, is presented in graphic form for selected Asian countries in Figures 1-3 in Annexes 1, 2 and 3.[6]

The curve patterns for the developed and newly industrialised Asian countries are illustrated in Figure 1, and, with the exception of Singapore form roughly an "M-shaped" curve. For the age group 15-19, the relatively low FLFPR is explained by the preoccupation with formal schooling and training at this level. All four curves show early peaks in FLFPR in the 20-24 age group, with particularly high peaks for Hong Kong and Singapore. The FLFPR declines continuously thereafter for Singapore, while Hong Kong shows a plateau between the 30-34 and 45-49 age groups before steadily declining. In contrast, both Japan and the Republic of Korea show a second increase and second peak in the 40-49 age-group. For Japan, the second peak is slightly lower than the first peak, whereas for the Republic of Korea, it is much higher than the first peak.

The age-specific trends of FLFPR for women in Malaysia, the Philippines, Thailand, and Indonesia are presented in Figure 2. They display the so-called "plateau-like" shape, with the exception of Malaysia which has a marked early peak of FLFPR in the 20-24 age group. The Philippines FLFPR reaches its highest level at about 55% for the 40-44 age-group, and levels off before declining from the 50-54 age group. The level of FLFPR for nearly all age groups is much higher in Thailand than in other Asian countries, reaching beyond 85% from the 25-29 through 45-49 age groups.

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[6] See Linda Lim, "Women in the Economy", Series 1, ESCAP, Bangkok, 1985, and Yasuhiko Saito and Naohiro Ogawa, "Male-Female Differentials in Labour Force Participation in Contemporary China", Draft Paper, ESCAP, Bangkok, June 1986.

As shown in Figure 3, the age-specific FLFPR patterns for the four South Asian countries reflect very different but relatively stable rates of female participation for Bangladesh and Pakistan. This could result from cultural and religious characteristics or poor reporting.[7] It should be noted here, however, that low FLFPR does not necessarily reflect a low level of contribution to the economy by women. The other three South Asian countries exhibit the relatively stable plateau-shaped distribution trend of the South-East Asian countries (Figure 2) but with Nepal at a noticeably lower level.

The differences in age-specific female labour force participation rates in the Asian countries apparently reflect the different stages and characteristics of economic development, as well as cultural and religious differences among these countries.

The examined cross-sectional rates are not necessarily identical to age-specific participation rate variations over lifetimes of cohorts of female workers. However, in the absence of required data, we are forced to depend on them to explain dynamic patterns and their implications.

## AGE-SPECIFIC PATTERNS, FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES AND TYPES OF OCCUPATIONS

In predominantly agrarian societies with large rural populations, such as those of the Asian countries mentioned in Figures 2 and 3, women workers who participate in the labour force tend to continue to do so through most of their working age-life. This results from the fact that childcare can frequently be combined with both farm and trade activities, while employment is frequently on an own-account or unpaid family labour basis. Because of the availability of extended family, kin, and neighbourhood support networks for child care, and the location of farm work and market activity near the home, women tend to remain in the labour force during their reproductive periods. They are able to combine child bearing with work, even when births are not properly spaced. The basic pattern of age-specific female labour force participation in such agrarian societies is thus that of a plateau-like shape, showing a profile of continued involvement in economic activities.[8/]

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[7] For an in depth discussion, see Rohini Nayyar, "Women and Employment in Pakistan", Draft Paper, ESCAP, Bangkok, June 1986, and M. Irfan, "The Determinants of Female Labour Force Participation in Pakistan", PIDE, Islamabad 1983. It should be noted that what is regarded as an economic activity in itself is an important issue in women's work. The FLFPR measurement is often rather poor and this is particularly the case when women are unpaid home-workers. Therefore, the age-wise curves may have some defects.

The transformation of agrarian rural societies into industrialised societies with accelerated economic development, induces noticeable changes in the plateau-like distribution of age-specific female labour force participation.

The creation of urban-industrial wage-employment, and the diversification of occupations, increases the demand for young female workers (age group 15-24). The latter are more likely to have the required education, training, physical mobility, economic need, and freedom from marital, childcare and family responsibilities to permit them to take up wage employment in the modern employment sector outside the home. This may explain the sharp increase in FLFPR up to the 20-24 age group, followed by a decline (as the onset of such responsibilities limit their flexibility) indicated by the early sharp peak found in all the industrialising countries and Malaysia.[9/] Provided that there is a high rate of family planning acceptance, delayed marriage and proper spacing of child births among this age group, it may be relatively easier to diversify their training and employment pattern. This group has the highest rate of female labour participation for upcoming industrial societies.

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[8/] This pattern is also found for women workers in China. See Ogawa and Saito, 'Male-Female Differentials in Labour Force Participation in Contemporary China, Draft Paper, ESCAP, Bangkok, 1986.

[9/] For further discussions on Malaysia's M-shaped curve, see Chia, Siow-Yue: "Women in the Malaysian Economy", Draft Paper, ESCAP, Bangkok, June 1986.

In modern urban societies with accelerated industrial development, married women workers in the age-bracket 25-35 (or higher) often find it difficult to combine childcare and other family responsibilities with wage employment outside their home, especially if the extended family and kin networks have begun to break down. Hence, there is in fact a conflict between wage-employment and home-making in more urban, industrialised societies. The sexual division of labour requires women to bear a disproportionate burden of responsibility for child bearing and rearing even if they are engaged in market production or wage labour. Many women, unless economic circumstances dictate otherwise, withdraw from the labour force on marriage and concentrate on housekeeping and child bearing because of the competing demands on their time and physical location. This explains the sharp decline in their age-specific labour force participation after the early peak in these countries. (See Figure 1: Malaysia). This withdrawal could be further accentuated by cultural and religious values and norms, which are more predominant in some countries and among certain groups, that "a good mother stays home while her children are growing up and her husband goes to work".[10/]

A second peak in age-specific female labour force participation for the 45-49 age group is observed for Japan, Korea and, to a lesser extent, Malaysia (Figures 1 and 2). However, for Singapore and Hong Kong, this is obviously not the case. This may reflect the situation of developed and newly industrialised countries (NIC's) where women have opportunities to return to the labour force, once they are freed from childcare responsibilities, provided that their family is spaced well and small sized. This is the explanation usually assumed for the M-shaped curve of age-specific FLFPR. This may also reflect the recentness of urban-industrial development in these Asian countries. However, this trend has not been observed for Thailand and Malaysia, possibly because of limited employment opportunities for middle-aged women and various cultural factors. This situation may, of course,

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[10/] See Linda Lim, "Women in the Economy", Series 1, Bangkok 1985, Chia Siow-Yue, "Women in the Malaysian Economy" and "Women in the Singapore Economy", Draft, ESCAP, Bangkok, 1986.

change in the future if appropriate stimulus is provided. The high labour force participation rate observed for women in their 40's and 50's in Japan and the Republic of Korea, and in their late 30's in Malaysia, may reflect the concentration of older women in the agrarian sector. This feature is not observed in Hong Kong and Singapore, which are mainly urban-industrial city-states with small rural sectors and a large population of relatively recent migrants who have little opportunity to work during the child-bearing years. They do not have the traditional kin networks for childcare. The Singapore Government, in this respect, is making an effort to assist such women to re-enter the workforce after childbearing.[11/]

Bangladesh shows an obvious upturn in female labour force participation after the 45-49 age group. The explanation for this upturn may be that poverty and abandonment-including widowhood - force the older female population back into wage employment, after their fertility age and completed childcare responsibilities.[12/] Another explanation within the societal context may be the reporting pattern and the possibility that only post-45 age-group women admit to working.

In the case of Malaysia, it may be argued that recent urban-industrial development, and the importance of the rural sector with a relatively high female labour force participation rate, is reflected in the age-specific participation pattern for Malaysian women.

## FEMALE LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION AND THE EMPLOYMENT STRUCTURE

As indicated earlier, (see Table 1), most female workers, in terms of absolute numbers, are found in agricultural occupations in developing countries such as Indonesia, Thailand, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Sri Lanka. In these countries and in the newly

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[11/] See Chia, Siow-Yue, "Women in the Singapore Economy", Draft, ESCAP, Bangkok June, 1986. With fertility control the time-gap between withdrawal and return to the workforce could be less.

[12/] See also Sunanda Sen, "Women in the Bangladesh Economy", Draft, ESCAP, Bangkok, June, 1986.

industrialised countries such as Singapore and Hong Kong, a large number are also found in production jobs (female-intensive export manufacturing industries). Women in production jobs (mainly manufacturing) are most common in the more heavily industrialised countries like Japan.

In countries like Hong Kong, Singapore, Japan and, to a certain extent Thailand, the female share of employment is also high in service areas such as trade and community, social, personal, financial and business services. This shows, in fact, that as societies develop and move from concentration in primary industry to further development of secondary and tertiary or service sectors, a greater diversification of opportunities for women occurs.

However, in virtually all countries, women remain poorly represented in professional jobs, management, mining, utilities, construction, transport and communications. These patterns are expected to change over time, with the conscious efforts of policy makers, and as further economic development takes place. However, there are other factors as well which need to be looked at if policy makers and planners want to diversify the training and employment opportunities for female workers. The pattern of structural transformation is determined not only by economic development, and cultural and religious norms, but also by the nature of and changes in the reproductive role and family responsibilities of women workers.13/

Demographic, socio-economic, and cultural factors operate on both the supply and demand sides of female labour force participation, which shows significant differences according to age, marital status, fertility behaviour, rural/urban residence, educational attainment, and the level

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13/ See M. Irfan, "Fertility Determinants of Female Labour Force Participation in Pakistan", PIDE, Islamabad, 1983.

and pattern of industrialisation.[14] Human resource development planning, which emphasises diversification of training and employment, should take the specific characteristics and needs of different age-groups of female workers into account. The diversification of training and employment should be related to the very different needs of female labour, and the limiting circumstances female workers face in their efforts to fully participate in the labour force.

## POSSIBLE POLICY CONSIDERATIONS FOR DIVERSIFYING TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT USING INFORMATION DERIVED FROM AGE-SPECIFIC PATTERNS OF FLFP

As indicated earlier, diversification of training and employment of women cannot be solely cast in the framework of aggregate training and manpower requirements. We cannot treat women workers as one homogeneous group. Women of different ages have different labour force participation patterns and experiences. Demographic, social, religious, and economic factors interact with the size, structure, and characteristics of the FLFPR. Young women may delay marriage and child birth in order to pursue their careers. At the same time, a number of married women manage to remain in the labour force, taking up demanding jobs.

However, as shown earlier, a large group of married female workers of the age group ranging from an average of 25 to 35 years decide to withdraw from the labour force after child bearing. Thus, the childcare and family responsibilities of these female workers do indeed influence their LFPR. Because of the family roles of female workers, they may tend to choose jobs that allow them to take time off and give them flexible schedules to accommodate the raising of their family. Therefore, they tend to concentrate on industries and jobs with low productivity and low wages which often permit such flexibility. There is also a tendency to take up less demanding jobs in terms of time, energy, and responsibility - jobs which are less conflicting with their dual role. Their scope for upward and horizontal job-mobility is thus limited.

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[14] The problems married female workers in the 25-35 age group encounter in organising their work and family life, may help us to understand why women are inclined to take up jobs which are already known to them and which provide security in organising their work-life related matters. Taking up non-traditional and senior-level occupations requires a great effort for them because of the necessity for a potentially disrupting reorganisation of their family-life after marriage and child-bearing. This may be one of the many explanations of under-representation of women in, for example, managerial and professional positions.

## THE FAMILY UNIT

Amongst the many institutions that create and transmit values, norms and stereotypes, the family is perhaps the most important single unit. Studies indicate that attitudes in the family could cause serious barriers for diversifying the training and employment of women. It has been argued that unless males and females are willing to share family responsibilities, equality in a real sense will be difficult to achieve.[15/] The family as an institution is in fact the right target group for promoting the idea of diversification of women's employment. Attempts to expand women's training and employment in non-traditional occupations or jobs at higher skill levels will also need to focus on the contribution and support obtained from the family and its members.

At present, children are often raised in an environment where the parents' attitudes create in them a sex-based bias towards occupational choices. At the same time, family attitudes may act to either encourage or discourage mothers and wives from working outside the house and, particularly, in non-traditional occupations. The family can thus also be instrumental in changing attitudes of males and females towards education, on-the-job training, and employment in such a way as to promote occupational desegregation. This will help in shaping more favourable attitudes towards employment of all women, but particularly

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[15/] See, Nafis Sadik, "Integration of Women in Population and Development Programmes", Asia-Pacific Population Journal, ESCAP, September 1986.

those with childcare and family responsibilities.[16] Relevant national policies, to help educate families along such lines, may therefore be necessary. The method of communication will play a strategic role in the effectiveness of such efforts. Workers' education programmes could be an effective means of reaching into the family for such purposes. Further, the mass media could be utilised to reach a wider target audience.

## GOVERNMENT POLICIES AND SUPPORT MEASURES

Government policies can give a tremendous boost to, and can play a pivotal role in, diversifying employment opportunities for married women workers with family responsibilities. Policy objectives may include both general and national economic, educational (skill training) and social goals, as well as direct improvement of welfare. A rapid expansion of educational facilities, as well as on-the-job training in non-traditional occupations, and greater access to new technologies by women throughout their lifetimes, may contribute to continued labour force participation by female workers either in their fertility age or in their posts child rearing years.[17] Educational policies, including provision of subsidies for training, to encourage equal educational access of males and females, may improve the skills and, thus, employability of female workers in professional and skilled occupations.

Besides "the equal pay for equal work" regulation, a fiscal policy, providing tax concessions, and tax allowances, for professional and skilled women, may encourage female workers to enter or remain in the labour force at all stages. At present, tax policies in some countries discourage FLFP by lumping together the wages of spouses and thus pushing the family unit into a higher tax bracket. Therefore, a review of such policies may contribute to increased FLFP.

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[16] See, "Women and the Workplace: The Implications of Occupational Segregation" Edited by M. Blaxall and B. Reagan, University of Chicago 1976.

[17] See, for discussion of Singapore's experience: Chia, Siow-Yue, "Women in the Singapore Economy", Draft ESCAP paper, Bangkok, June 1986.

Together with improved contraceptive knowledge and facilities, the preoccupation of women with child bearing and childcare activities could be reduced. Concurrently, women may also be encouraged to take up paid employment and pursue available jobs and professions to make productive use of the time thus freed. In this context, government efforts, in relation to national population planning and family welfare activities, have a specific relevance to female labour force participation and, ultimately, the diversification of their employment opportunities.[18]

Where practical, feasible, and relevant, governments may even wish to consider the introduction of minimum numerical quotas for the employment of female workers in non-traditional occupation sectors. Such action would, of course, require careful assessment. Perhaps a start could be made by considering such a system for public-sector employment.

## EMPLOYERS' POLICIES AND SUPPORT MEASURES

Given the diversity in age structure and demographic characteristics of the female labour force, different segments of the working female population naturally have different training and employment needs. Thus, employers' policies and support measures for increasing female labour force participation rates and diversifying their employment and training opportunities must take into account the differing needs of the three main segments of the target groups (i.e, pre-marriage; marriage and childcaring; and post-childcaring age women workers).

An important point to be noted, in the context of female employability, is that, apart from not having equal access to all levels of education, women often face resistance from employers in terms of hiring and training for jobs which the latter feel must be filled by a person who is likely to retain the position for a long period. Many employers feel that women, particularly pre-marriage age women, are potentially a high-turnover risk for such jobs. As a result, women are often given jobs that require minimal skills and training. Their positions are easily substitutable and entail little investment by the employers in terms of training. Such jobs usually have negligible future prospects and are invariably low-paid.[19/]

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[18] Withdrawal from the labour force, because of child bearing and rearing, means in fact loss of skilled manpower.

The circumstances cited above lead to the fact that women workers when they withdraw from the labour force at the age of 25-35 remain insufficiently trained. Then when they seek to re-enter the labour force, usually when family and childcaring responsibilities permit (often after the age of 35), they find they lack the necessary skills and information required by new technologies and an often transformed workplace. To help remedy the disadvantages faced by actual and potential female labour force participants, a restructuring of their terms of employment, with the inclusion of appropriate training provisions may be needed. This would enable working mothers to either combine wage-labour with child raising and other family responsibilities or to re-enter the labour force more easily at a later stage. There may be a need to develop sensitive" on-the-job or apprenticeship training schemes. Even a family-based employment (production) scheme, requiring minimum dislocation for women workers, could be designed by employers. The training scheme could consist of skills for which there is great forecasted demand and advancement opportunities for women in the context of economic development. Through such a scheme, women could remain in the labour force or even re-enter the labour market, without loss of required skills and information regarding new developments in their work areas. Finally, in-plant counselling services for female workers, entering or re-entering the labour market, might help women who seek professional advice and guidance in diversifying their choice for jobs. The provision of subsidised transport, creches, flexi-time, shiftwork, and other support services might be worthwhile exploring.

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[19/] See Ogawa: "Sex Differentials in Labour Force Participation and Earnings in Japan", (draft) ESCAP, Bangkok, June 1986.
See also: "Women and the Workplace", edited by Blaxall and B. Reagan, University of Chicago, 1976.

## CONCLUDING REMARKS

Women's maximum participation and contribution to economic development is not only a complex issue, but needs to be approached from different angles. In this paper, we have chosen to look at only one angle: the demographic characteristics of women workers. Continued research and analysis may be required to fully grasp the patterns and characteristics of labour force participation of (married) women in Asian countries, especially on which groups drop out and which groups return to the labour force. This paper has made an attempt to look at the demographic variables of the labour force participation of female workers in the Asian context, and to indicate how this is linked with diversification of training and employment opportunities and the policy considerations resulting therefrom. It should be understood that joint efforts from the family (as a micro-level institution which is directly responsible for the socialisation process of family members), the government, employers, and unions may be needed. Such joint activity should supplement individual efforts of each of these institutions in integrating female labour into the main stream of economic development - the main reason why diversification of training and employment is required. Since there are not many studies done in this field in the Asian region, more policy-oriented research work based on demographic information and models may be required.

Finally, the limitations of available data used for this paper should be recognised. In this context, it may be useful for individual countries to attempt to recreate the age-specific FLFPR curves used here, on the basis of more recent data available at national levels. Such recreated curves may provide relevant information for use in analysing the interaction between age-specific FLFPR and the diversification and training of women workers for the individual countries concerned.

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ANNEX 1

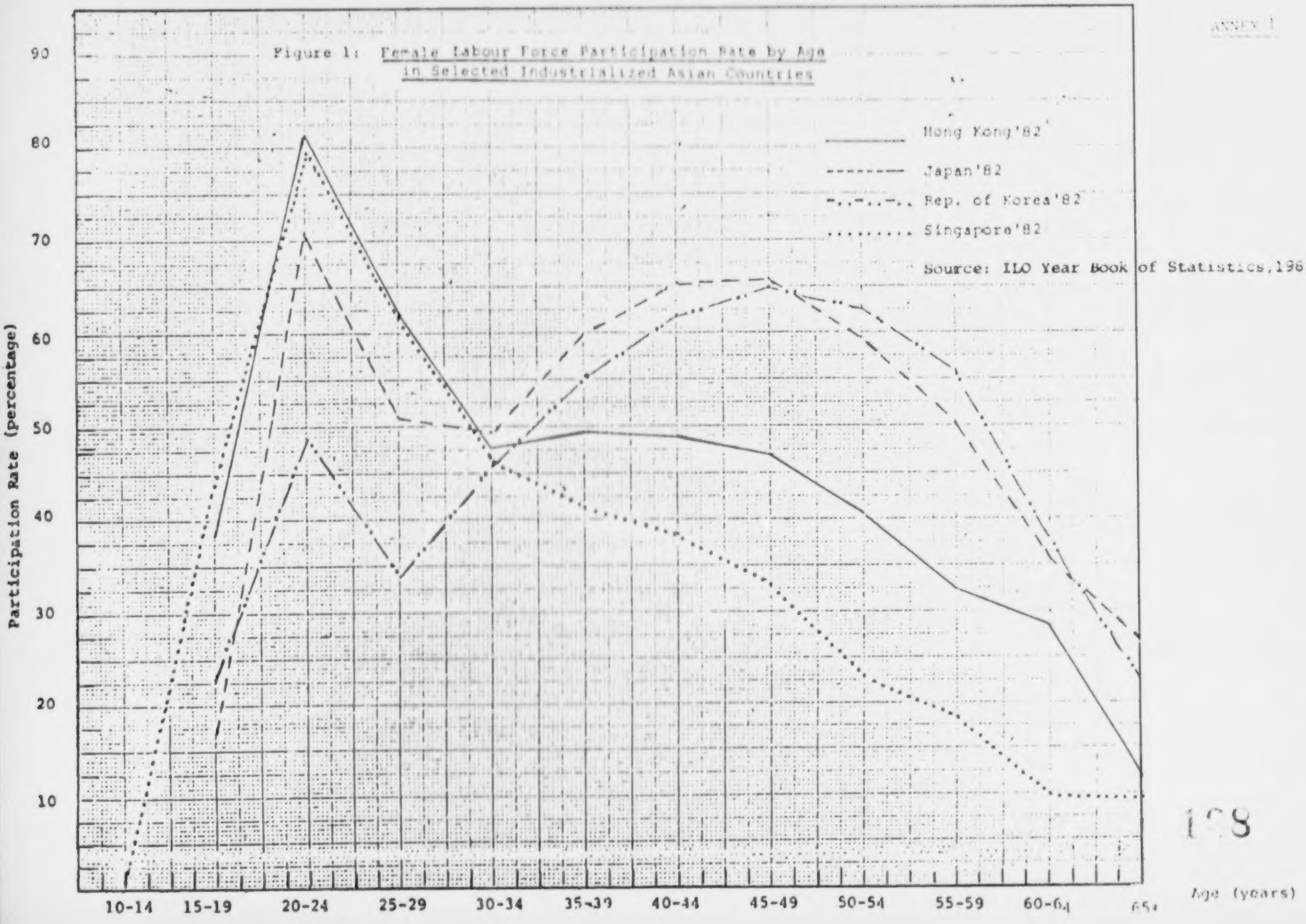

Figure 1: Female Labour Force Participation Rate by Age in Selected Industrialized Asian Countries

Source: ILO Year Book of Statistics,1983

ANNEX 2

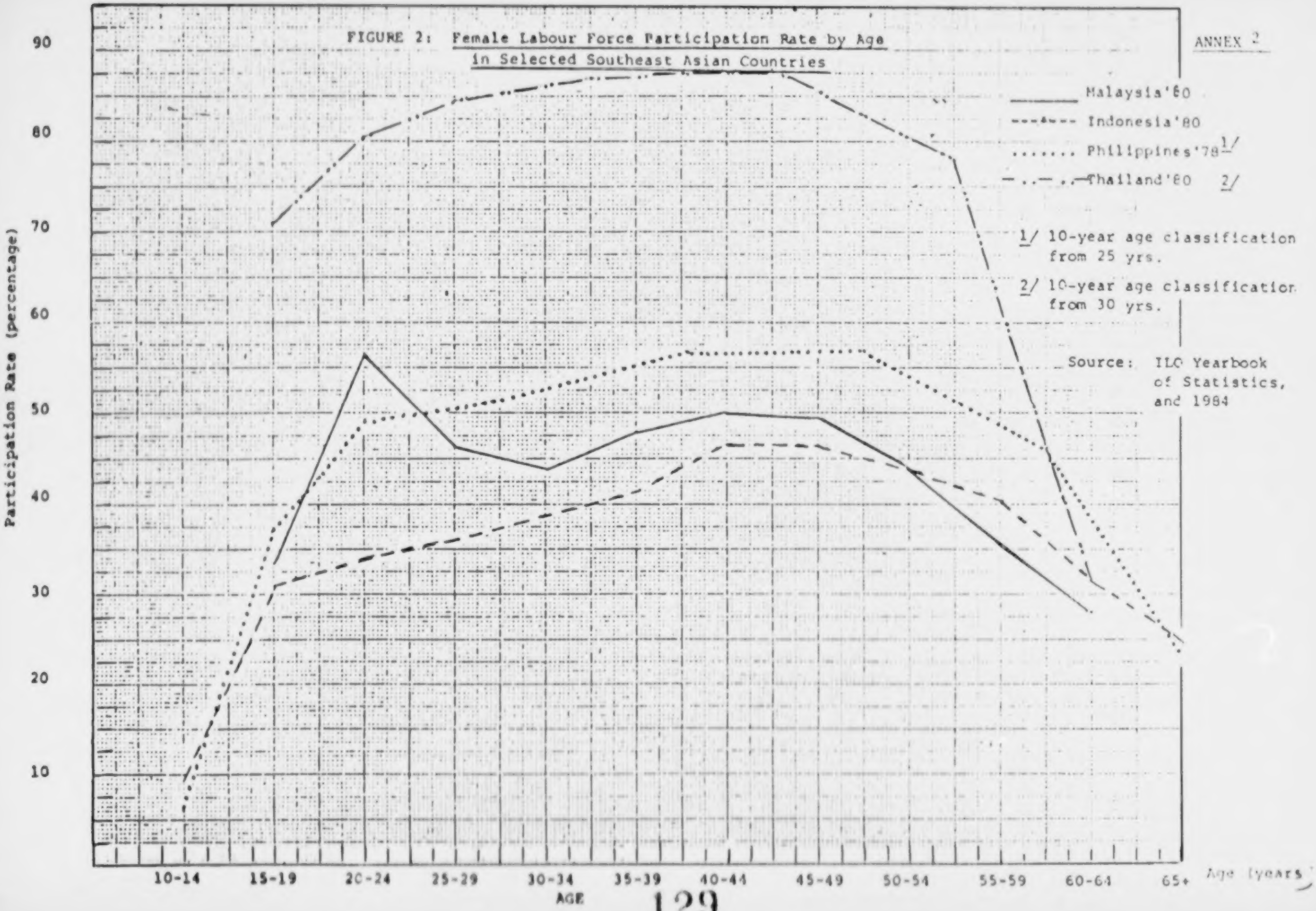

FIGURE 2: Female Labour Force Participation Rate by Age in Selected Southeast Asian Countries

1/ 10-year age classification from 25 yrs.

2/ 10-year age classification from 30 yrs.

Source: ILO Yearbook of Statistics, and 1984

ANNEX 3

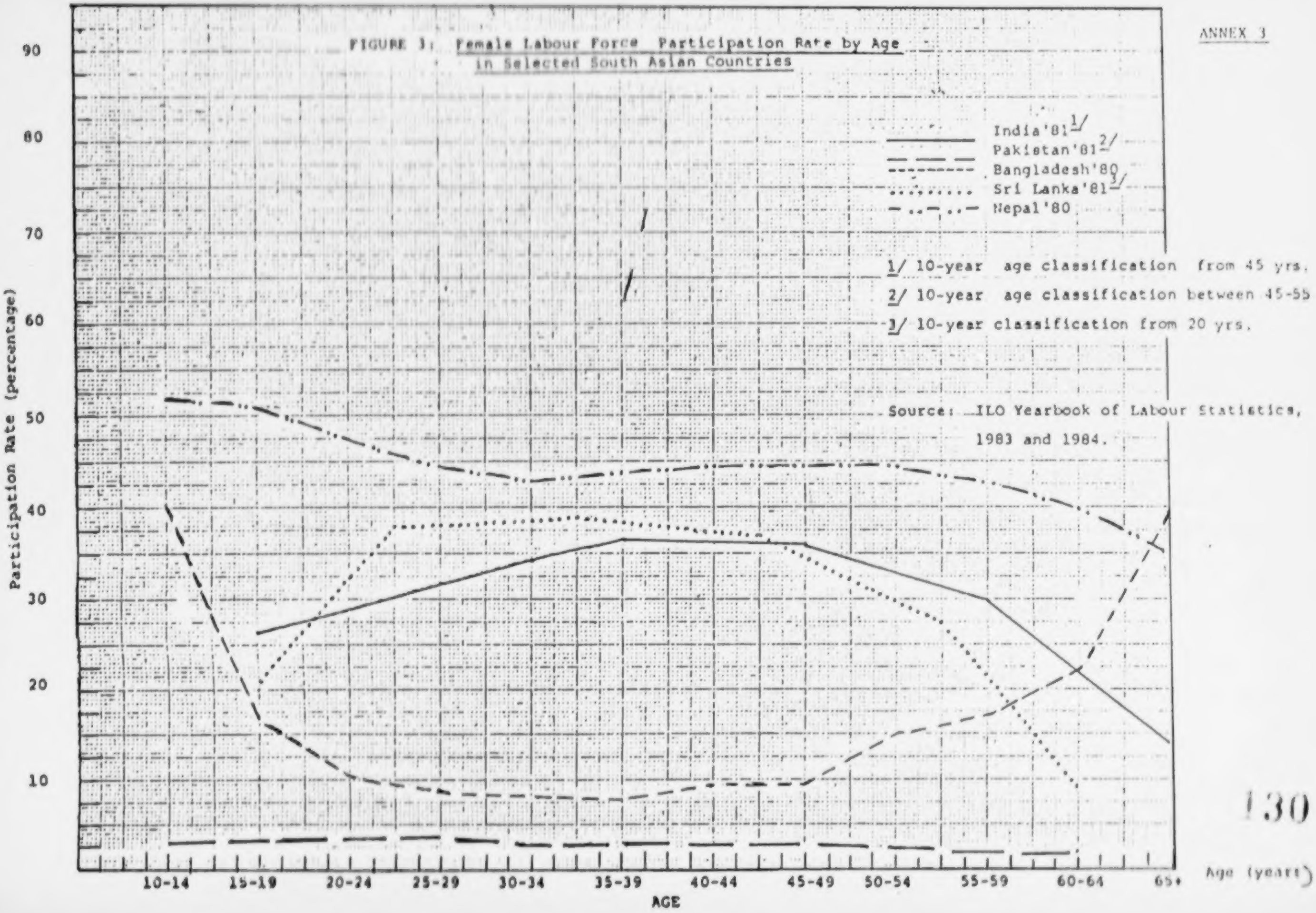

FIGURE 3: Female Labour Force Participation Rate by Age in Selected South Asian Countries

[1] 10-year age classification from 45 yrs.

[2] 10-year age classification between 45-55

[3] 10-year classification from 20 yrs.

Source: ILO Yearbook of Labour Statistics, 1983 and 1984.

## TABLE 1. LABOUR FORCE BY OCCUPATION

(Per cent)

| Country-& Year | | Prof.& Tech. | Admin.& Manag. | Cler-ical | Sales | Ser-vice | Agri. | Prod. | n.e.c[a] | Un-emp-loyed | Total[b] |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Hong Kong 1982 | M & F[c] | 6.0 | 3.8 | 14.7 | 10.0 | 15.0 | 1.5 | 47.9 | 0.1 | 0.9 | 100.0 |
| | % total F[d] | 7.4 | 1.1 | 22.4 | 7.7 | 15.3 | 1.4 | 43.4 | 0.3 | 1.0 | 100.0 |
| | % F share[e] | 43.1 | 10.5 | 53.9 | 27.4 | 36.1 | 33.3 | 32.1 | | 47.8 | 35.5 |
| Indonesia 1930 | M & F | 2.9 | 0.1 | 3.4 | 12.8 | 4.2 | 55.2 | 16.7 | 1.0 | 1.7 | 100.0 |
| | % total F | 3.2 | - | 1.4 | 18.4 | 6.6 | 52.9 | 14.8 | 0.3 | 2.3 | 100.0 |
| | % F share | 36.5 | 10.3 | 13.5 | 47.3 | 51.3 | 31.6 | 26.1 | 25.6 | 44.3 | 33.0 |
| Japan 1982 | M & F | 8.2 | 3.8 | 16.8 | 14.5 | 8.3 | 9.4 | 36.4 | 0.2 | 2.4 | 100.0 |
| | % total F | 9.6 | 0.5 | 23.5 | 14.3 | 11.7 | 11.7 | 26.3 | 0.2 | 2.3 | 100.0 |
| | % F share | 45.9 | 5.5 | 54.4 | 38.3 | 54.8 | 48.6 | 28.2 | 26.7 | | 39.0 |
| Korea, Rep. 1932 | M & F | 4.2 | 1.1 | 9.2 | 14.7 | 9.6 | 30.4 | 26.4 | 1.3 | 3.1 | 100.0 |
| | % total F | 3.6 | - | 8.3 | 17.6 | 14.4 | 34.8 | 18.7 | 1.0 | 1.4 | 100.0 |
| | % F share | 32.8 | 2.4 | 34.1 | 45.9 | 58.2 | 44.0 | 27.1 | 22.3 | 17.1 | 38.4 |
| Philippines 1981 | M & F | 6.4 | 1.1 | 4.4 | 11.7 | 11.6 | 50.0 | 14.8 | n.a. | n.a. | 100.0 |
| | % total F | 10.7 | 0.7 | 5.3 | 20.1 | 14.1 | 37.0 | 12.0 | n.a. | n.a. | 100.0 |
| | % F share | 59.7 | 23.8 | 42.4 | 61.8 | 43.0 | 26.4 | 29.0 | n.a. | n.a. | 35.7 |
| Singapore 1982 | M & F | 9.2 | 5.0 | 16.2 | 13.3 | 10.9 | 1.3 | 38.6 | 4.9 | 0.6 | 100.0 |
| | % total F | 10.1 | 2.3 | 29.1 | 11.6 | 14.9 | 1.1 | 29.9 | 0.2 | 0.8 | 100.0 |
| | % F share | 39.6 | 16.4 | 63.8 | 31.1 | 49.0 | 28.5 | 27.7 | | 51.6 | 35.7 |
| Sri Lanka 1981 | M & F | 4.8 | 0.5 | 4.8 | 7.0 | 4.5 | 39.8 | 24.9 | 0.2 | 13.5 | 100.0 |
| | % total F | 8.4 | 0.2 | 3.2 | 3.7 | 4.7 | 42.2 | 16.6 | - | 21.0 | 100.0 |
| | % F share | 48.3 | 9.7 | 18.3 | 14.5 | 28.9 | 29.1 | 18.3 | 41.7 | 42.7 | 27.4 |
| Thailand 1980 | M & F | 2.5 | 1.3 | 1.7 | 8.2 | 2.7 | 70.2 | 12.5 | 0.4 | 0.5 | 100.0 |
| | % total F | 2.4 | 0.4 | 1.6 | 10.4 | 2.8 | 73.6 | 7.9 | 0.3 | 0.4 | 100.0 |
| | % F share | 47.1 | 17.8 | 42.8 | 59.6 | 50.0 | 49.6 | 29.8 | 34.0 | 47.5 | 47.2 |
| Australia 1982 | M & F | 13.5 | 6.0 | 16.1 | 8.1 | 8.7 | 6.6 | 34.0 | n.a. | 7.0 | 100.0 |
| | % total F | 16.2 | 2.4 | 30.8 | 11.5 | 14.7 | 3.8 | 11.5 | n.a. | 9.1 | 100.0 |
| | % F share | 44.4 | 14.7 | 70.7 | 52.3 | 62.7 | 21.5 | 12.5 | n.a. | 48.1 | 37.0 |

# DIVERSIFICATION OF WOMEN'S TRAINING IN ASIA

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## BACKGROUND

In 1979, the ILO and the Asian and Pacific Skill Development Programme (APSDEP) convened a Regional Workshop on Income Generating Skills for Women in Asia. This workshop, held in Chiengmai, Thailand, analysed and synthesised country reports which were the outcome of a 1976-1977 ILO research project in six countries. The aim of the reports was to collect information that could be helpful to countries in Asia and the Pacific to develop policies and programmes to train women.

One of the recommendations at the national level was that vocational training programmes should be extended and diversified to enable women to gain a wider range of skills, particularly in non-traditional sectors and thereby facilitate their entry into new employment areas.

It was also recommended that appropriate technology should be utilised to reduce the time spent by women in household tasks to enable them to participate more actively in training programmes, to engage in income-generating activities, or seek employment.

At the regional level, one of the conclusions was for APSDEP to examine in greater depth the issue of participation of women in training programmes, and to see why women seem not to take advantage of national training programmes. APSDEP was requested to find out whether the reasons for this were because of certain policies, or because of the socio-cultural environment. To undertake this task APSDEP, with assistance from the Government of the Netherlands, did research in five countries of the region namely India, Indonesia, Pakistan, the Philippines, and Singapore.

Based on these studies a regional workshop on the participation of women in training programmes was organised in Islamabad, Pakistan, in November 1982. The workshop reiterated the need for the diversification of training for women by the development of pilot projects for training women in non-traditional skills where women's participation is generally low, or in new occupations in the growth sectors, both in urban and in rural areas, to diversify skills and promote economic opportunities through the following measures:

- self-employment or entrepreneurship training programmes;
- apprenticeship training and on the job training;
- institutional training in basic and advanced skills;
- training female trainers to set role models for other girls and women;
- campaigns by the mass media to encourage women to participate in training and employment in non-traditional occupations.

Furthermore it was proposed that APSDEP should help promote, identify, and document case studies, disseminate experiences in the region in diversifying women's skills, and organise national sub-regional and regional meetings to encourage similar action. In January 1983, a regional high level consultation meeting for women workers was held in Bangkok. This meeting further emphasised the need to diversify training and employment for women.

Both the International Labour Conference and the 10th Asian Regional Conference held in 1985 adopted resolutions related to equal opportunities and treatment for women in employment. Diversification of women's training and employment was proposed as one of the major areas for future action.

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Recently APSDEP organised a workshop on appropriate technology and training for women in South Asia. In this workshop the introduction of appropriate technologies for women was emphasised, which can be used either to reduce household chores and thereby enable women to venture into employment, or can be used for income generating purposes. Appropriate technologies also offer opportunities for the diversification of women's employment.

## Statement of the Problem

The problem, put in two words, is: occupational segregation. However, the phenomenon implied by these two words has multi-faceted causes and effects which range from being very simple to being highly complex; from affecting a single individual to affecting the national, regional, or even the world labour market.

Inadequate training, restricted to a narrow field, is a major aspect of the occupational segregation problem. As a problem, inadequate training seems simple. Ask policy makers and government officials about barriers to women's entry into training and they are likely to say, "there are no major legal barriers," which is true. Ask women, who desperately want to enter the employment field, and you will find that there are barriers. These barriers are due to social, economic, and cultural factors.

Despite a considerable increase in the female labour force, the participation rate of females in training, and consequently in employment, has remained in a narrow range of occupations at low levels of skills, productivity and pay with little job security. The male labour force, however, is found in a wide range of sectors, indicating more diversified employment and a greater range of job opportunities at higher skill and income levels.

Inadequate training policies and practices are major contributory factors limiting women's access to a wide range of occupations. First of all, numerically fewer women than men receive training due primarily to household labour demands on women and girls, and to the lack of support services and measures for women. In addition, training facilities for women are often inadequate in countries where separate training institutions for females are required by custom. Secondly, the level and type of training women receive is often unrelated to employment opportunities and sectoral development priorities. Even in countries where statistics indicate a high rate of female participation in training, a closer study reveals that it is often restricted to domestic sciences, and traditional crafts and occupations with marginal economic value and low manpower demand. Consequently, although training is open to both men and women, in most Asian countries, sex segregation in training persists, and the skill areas deemed appropriate for women are often dictated by custom rather than by skill requirements in the labour market or by individual ability.

In order to give women an equal basis compared to men to qualify for a wide range of occupations, they should have equal access to all available educational and training facilities. In addition, measures should be taken to ensure that once women are trained in these fields they will be able to get employment.

In other words, the training of women should be directed towards the labour market requirements. Moreover, recent trends are likely to aggravate the situation for women. The cost of training is rising because of higher technologies and rapid changes in labour demand. It will be difficult for developing countries to meet these higher costs. Therefore, a rationalisation of training systems through better use of existing resources will be required. Training courses dedicated to areas for which there is no employment potential are likely to be cut. In this connection there is a need to reorient training so that women are encouraged to enter occupations in areas of manpower demand.

# POLICIES

## Policies in Women's Training

Since the 1970s, there have been new trends in thinking and legislation on discrimination concerning women workers, and there has been a call for special measures and positive action in their favour. These trends can be traced to the Declaration on Equality of Opportunity and Treatment of Women Workers, and to the resolution concerning a plan of action with a view to promoting equality of opportunity and treatment for women workers (1975); the United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination Against Women (1979); and the decisions and resolutions of three world conferences on women (Mexico City 1975, Copenhagen 1980, and Nairobi 1985). In 1981, the International Labour Conference adapted the Workers with Family Responsibilities Convention (No. 156), and Recommendation (No. 165), which represented an advance over a previous standard, and the Employment (of Women with Family Responsibilities) Recommendation, 1965 (No. 123), recognising the need to protect the employment of all workers with family responsibilities, irrespective of sex.

The decade recorded some positive changes. Progress has been made by many countries in the enactment of legislation such as India's Equal Remuneration Legislation (1976), and Japan's recent enactment of the Equal Opportunity Act (1985).

Most countries have taken positive measures, such as formulating national policies and plans of action, introducing women's concerns in their development, and establishing national co-ordinating mechanisms. Such measures have been taken in China, Fiji, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Western Samoa.

In policy making for women's training and employment, Japan takes the lead as it has a comprehensive set of complementary policies, including the Vocational Training Law, Labour Standards Law, Industrial Homework Law, social welfare policies, and a National Plan of Action for

Women. The first among the Asian countries to enforce a Vocational Training Law in the 1960s, it has adopted numerous policy measures, incorporated into the law, to encourage women's training. Significantly, with changes in its labour market, Japan has correspondingly amended its vocational training law - an indication of the government's sensitivity to external changes as well as its seriousness in ensuring the enactment of its laws (see Lazo 1984). Long-term policies on vocational training are laid out within the Vocational Training Law, and are translated into a five-year plan at the level of the Labour Ministry and the prefectures.

Its numerous policy measures to encourage women's training include the following provisions:

- training should be provided irrespective of sex;
- training assistance is granted to various groups, and include unemployment insurance; and skill acquisition allowance for trainees who are currently unemployed and for middle-aged or elderly persons or widowers in training; a monthly training allowance; and interest-free loans from the Skills Development Fund and subsidies for employer-initiated training, if authorised by the government;
- loans for establishing nurseries and acquiring children's toys;
- provision of nursing and medical facilities for women in schools

Japan has set a policy for women's training and employment but there is protective legislation for women which may prove adverse to women's employment. The Japanese Government recognises and seeks to review these issues as pointed out in its National Plan of Action.

Adopting a similarly progressive attitude as Japan, the Singapore Government has maintained a fair stance in that most of its educational and training programmes have been formulated to cater to the needs of both sexes. These programmes offer training opportunities to all individuals so that they may be given the chance to develop their potential to the fullest.

Among the subcontinental countries, India has a fairly long history of women oriented training policies. The Sixth and Seventh Development Plans give extensive attention to women in development (see Lazo 1984).

The Sixth Five-Year Plan emphasised the expansion of educational opportunities for women by creating incentives to keep women in formal education; institutional strengthening of girls' schools and colleges, especially in teaching science subjects in order to achieve greater participation of women in science and technology; streamlining admission policies to promote enrolment of girls in engineering, agricultural, veterinarian, medicine, fisheries, and forestry courses; and earmarking one-third of seats for rural girls in the new Training Scheme for Rural Youth and Self-employment.

The same plan stipulated that to promote employment for women, the following should be undertaken: identify areas or sectors where women's participation is low; initiate training facilities to promote employability, including self-employment of women job-seekers; provide special incentives like stipends, hostel places, special prizes and awards to increase women's participation in apprenticeship and craftsmen training schemes; and set up more regional vocational training institutes for women and extend them to rural women.

The Government of India instituted a vocational training programme for women under the craftsmen scheme at industrial training institutes. One national and four regional vocational training institutes for women were set up under the new national policy on education (1986). It is envisaged that opportunities for technical education for women will increase considerably.

Pakistan pursues egalitarian policies to promote equal opportunities for every citizen, and there is no legislation prohibiting female entry into any occupation or institution. In the sixth five year plan a chapter on women was included, which was prepared with the help of a special working group on women. Polytechnics for women were established, and in 1987 five women's centres will be included in the national vocational training programme.

The basic law for vocational training (1976) in Korea states that vocational training for women should be encouraged and accordingly many training centres have opened their doors to women (see Mihye Roh, 1986).

The Philippines provides an example of a country where marked legislative changes can be seen through the promulgation of the Labour Code in 1974, which prohibits discrimination against women, outlaws stipulations against marriage, and enumerates unlawful acts of employers. Today, the promotion of equality of treatment and opportunity for women workers is emphasised.

The government of Thailand established clear policy guidelines in its Fourth Development Plan (1977-81) on women related activities in the education of women, and extended its policies on women to other fields in later development plans (see Pongpaichit 1986).

Although current policies in the region promote women's advancement, forms of discrimination may still persist. Some specific policies could have double-edged effects on women's welfare. For instance, a common concern among ASEAN countries is the law prohibiting night-work for women. Meant to protect women, this policy reduces women's employment prospects.

In order to develop effective policy measures to promote women's participation in training programmes for a broader range of occupations, training statistics segregated by sex are a necessity. In this way progress made can be determined, and policies and programmes will be able to anticipate developments. Statistics on training exist but, in most countries, they are fragmented collected by different ministries, or sometimes only available on an institutional basis. A serious effort should be made to collect data on training by trade, level, and sex on a national basis. Based on these statistics co-ordination of training could be facilitated and the duplication of efforts prevented.

## Patterns of Vocational Training

Vocational training may be acquired by individuals through formal and non-formal methods, as well as through informal education and training. All these categories of vocational education and training are to be found in each country of the region, in both urban and rural areas, and are practised in varying degrees by the public and private sectors. However, there is great variation in the planning, co-ordination, financing, and delivery of training from country to country. Even within individual countries, there is no model pattern of vocational training though there is a growing desire to standardise and co-ordinate training systems in order to avoid conflicts of interest and expensive duplication of investment in repetitive schemes.

In countries like India, Pakistan, and Thailand, a distinction is made between technical education and technical training, between vocational education and vocational training, with education coming under the Ministry of Education and training under the Ministry of Labour and Manpower. Many other ministries may engage in various forms and degrees of vocational training. For instance, Burma has training institutions in many of its ministries and departments whose area of responsibility range from highways and railways to construction and communication (see Report II,ILO 1985).

The reasons for this diversity in the responsibility for and the delivery of vocational training are numerous. The major factor is the historical dichotomy between education and training.

To some extent it is possible to group vocational training systems under a pattern of three functional headings, which depict the degree of centralisation and co-ordination exercised by the government. These headings are centralised systems, co-ordinated systems, and multi-faceted systems.

In centralised systems, all aspects of vocational training in a community have become centrally co-ordinated under one approved system, and government legislation covers practically all forms of on and off-the-job training. In such systems, a high degree of control and responsibility for the design, execution, and management of vocational training is vested in a single government agency.

The Vocational and Industrial Training Board (VITB) of Singapore provides an example of a centralised system. The government has endorsed the VITB with a wide mandate covering virtually all aspects of pre-vocational training and all forms of skill certification.

Co-ordinated systems are those where vocational training has been undertaken by numerous ministries or public organisations, and it has become important to integrate their activities so that governments can monitor more closely the current status of training. The autonomy of the individual systems is maintained, but the co-ordinating body becomes a focal point where policies are established and information on training activities is exchanged. Some co-ordinating bodies are constituted as advisory councils or committees such as the National Vocational Training Council (China), whereas others, such as the National Manpower and Youth Council (Philippines), are involved in the delivery of training. Co-ordinated systems which include a variety of autonomous training schemes are the most common form of vocational training system within the region.

Multi-faceted training systems exist in countries or regions that have no formal co-ordinated systems of vocational training, or have very recent systems which have yet to gain the full endorsement of the other separate training sub-systems. In Sri Lanka, many ministries and government corporations or public utilities run their own training centres. The Ministry of Labour has some training facilities and is currently considering exercising a broader consultative and co-ordinating role.

Rural vocational training cannot be classified under the same headings as urban training. Although there has been a significant improvement in the provision of agricultural training and development services in recent years, the same cannot be said of non-farm skills training.

The practice of attempting to reach the rural people with skills training through the provincial networks of national manpower development schemes appears to be increasing.

Mobile training is being used in many countries to overcome the problem of reaching the rural people who cannot come to training centres. Mobile training is usually an extension of existing centres, and forms a bridge between formal and non-formal approaches to the rural communities. Sri Lanka operates over 300 mobile training facilities.

Another technique that has extended the reach of rural training centres is the use being made of distance learning techniques. India has its own satellite beaming educational and training programmes to remote villages. Many countries like Pakistan and Thailand have Open Universities, which are involved in the transmission of basic skills and knowledge relating to rural gainful activities.

A major conclusion of a recent ILO study titled "Training the Majority: Guidelines for rural training in the Pacific", is that it is essential for training to originate at the local community level, and to have the community's full co-operation.

Informal training - the unstructured learning which takes place by observation and daily acquaintance, is the oldest form of training. However, its existence in the current decade is the result of social, educational, and financial constraints which keep people away from organised forms of vocational training.

What has been discussed in patterns of vocational training applies to training for all and not specifically for women. What exact proportion of the different types of training discussed applies to women is hard to tell. However, it is highly probable that women form a smaller percentage of the trainees than men.

## Financing of Training

Training costs have escalated at an alarming rate during the last two decades, and the rise is greater in some fields than in others. The reasons for the escalating costs can be traced to several inter-related factors including the rise in cost of land and buildings, services such as water and electricity, training equipment, and staff salaries that must keep pace with the cost of living and the qualifications of the staff.

There are also hidden costs deriving from foregone income or loss of productivity attributable to trainers' and trainees' time while training is being undertaken.

Short-term increases in training costs have come from the initial introduction of some new methods and media. Many of these new techniques originated in industrialised countries where they proved efficient and cost-effective. However, they do not always prove to be so in developing countries.

Modular training is efficient in meeting rapidly changing employment needs, but the initial cost of individual work spaces and materials is much higher than that of group teaching.

New methods rely heavily on media such as tapes, slides, film, and television which speed up the rate of learning but are costly in installation and maintenance.

Competency-based training requires more capital outlay in materials and supervisory staff if it is to be administered effectively.

Many national training boards or institutes have turned to external sources to find the capital outlays for these new approaches. Although, the development banks, United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), and other donors have usually supported such efforts, the government auditors see the investment as a high capital cost. Even after the project or loan is over, the operational costs of the new methods continue to show as a major debit item in the annual budget, often without tangible evidence that they have produced economic returns.

The exact costs and benefits of using the new methods of training are very difficult to determine. Various formulae have been developed, but many of them are related to research in industrialised countries where conditions and variables interact in ways different to those found in developing countries. In the Asia and Pacific region, the Philippines has undertaken research in this field in conjunction with APSDEP. (see L.C. de la Llana, 1982) Some cost-benefit analyses of training are currently being carried out in India in collaboration with the ILO.

Faced with high training costs and financial constraints, governments are looking for ways to reduce these costs and to share the financial burden.

Some governments are attempting to give industry a greater share in the financing and implementation of vocational training. This may have some attractions. In-plant training, both on and off-the-job, should produce more relevant skills, with training being more cost effective and the output more efficient. But, from the women's point of view, there are disadvantages to this arrangement. The main users of advanced skills are those industries which are in the forefront of technological development and where training costs are frequently highest. Here trainees are generally males.

The costs of training in the informal sector, where female participation is relatively high, are largely unknown. Little is known about the cost or value of passing on skills through informal apprenticeship.

The financing of rural training remains a major problem in many countries. The absence of large-scale enterprises makes it unlikely that any alternative source of training or funding can be identified outside that of the central or provincial government. However, often rural people need low levels of skills in occupational areas which are not as technologically advanced as their urban counterparts. Therefore, the per capita cost of rural training is usually less than that of urban training.

The future of financing of national vocational training systems is a question which concerns all countries of the region and for which there is no detailed statistical information.

## PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN IN TRAINING PROGRAMMES

Although some progress has been made with respect to the increase of literacy rates, and more women have enrolled in secondary and tertiary education and in vocational training, women still lag behind men. Overall, fewer women participate in training programmes, and when they do participate they tend to opt for training related to their traditional roles with limited opportunities for employment. Despite these facts, statistics of various training institutions show progress, slow but positive, towards women in technical fields which in the past were almost completely dominated by men. A few examples of the women's participation in training programmes from selected countries in the Region, are worth nothing:

In Singapore's Ngee Ann Polytechnic, there is a rise in female participation in building maintenance and management, electrical and electronic engineering, and mechanical engineering courses. Major female concentration is shown in the institute's business studies course, which for the period 1976-1981 showed a female participation rate of 59.7 per cent (see Lazo, 1984).

Singapore's official certifying body for industrial and commercial trade courses, the Vocational and Industrial Training Board (VITB), shows a female participation rate of 31 per cent in its training programmes during a five year period (1976-1981). Although courses in the service and business studies registered high overall female participation of over 90 per cent each, there was a significant increase in female participation in male dominated courses such as mechanical, printing, and wood based trades.

Although most training programmes in Singapore are open to females, except programmes requiring strenous physical training, females may be at a disadvantage in subtle ways. To cite an example, the Economic Development Board runs a joint industrial training scheme providing workers with specialised training for work in the precision engineering industry. At the completion of four years of training, successful trainees are awarded a Craftsman Certificate. Although women are encouraged to enrol in this scheme, they are at a disadvantage. At the end of the training they have to serve a three year bond while the male graduates, who have either completed or will be undergoing National Service, need only serve a one year bond. Female participation in this training scheme is less than ten per cent.

Training provided by private firms (approved by the VITB) showed discouraging female participation rates up to 1982: of 725 workers undergoing training only one was female.

In Sri Lanka training is the responsibility of various ministries and institutions. Sri Lanka has a fairly low illiteracy rate (14 per cent total and 19 per cent for women). Of the students enroled in universities, 44 per cent are women. They are under-represented in fields like engineering and architecture, and over-represented in social sciences, humanities, and education. Women continue to be concentrated in training areas related to the service sector. Nursing schools are almost all female, and 60 per cent of the students in teachers' colleges and institutes for social work are female. A small number of women have opted for technical education. The majority of them are concentrated in fields such as commerce, handicrafts, home science, and tailoring. A new area women have entered in considerable numbers is draughting. At present 53 per cent of the intake for draughting certificate courses are women. For the national diploma in technology and technical certificate courses, enrolment of women comprised 19 per cent and 9 per cent respectively in 1984, which is a considerable increase when compared to 1973, when these were 8 per cent and 6 per cent. The total enrolment of women in the technical institutes of the Ministry of Education increased from 15 per cent in 1973 to 37 per cent in 1984. The Ministry of Education has a non-formal education unit in which women comprise 70 per cent of the trainees. But again, they enrol mainly in courses such as embroidery, batik, knitting, home science, food processing, typing, and short hand. A few women though take training in welding, photography, draughtmanship, lapidary, and brass work.

The National Apprenticeship Board, established as the training agency for industrial development, has currently a higher proportion of women apprentices than it had in the 1970s. Nevertheless, this increase is also the result of the provision of training courses in traditional female areas in which 77 per cent of the women are enroled. New areas in which women are being trained are printing, gem cutting and jewellery manufacture, radio mechanism, typewriter repairs, and shoe manufacture.

The Ministry of Labour also trains women in its vocational training centres. The percentage of women trained has risen to 77 per cent of the total trainees. Eighty percent of the women are being trained in traditional female fields, and only a handful opted for training in radio mechanism, carpentry, and masonry. In addition to the above mentioned ministries, there is also training imparted by the National Youth Council and the Women's Bureau. The latter concentrates more on the rural areas and training is given in agriculture, animal husbandry, and food preparation. Apart from the government agencies, non-government organisations are active in providing training.

From the above it can be concluded that increasing numbers of women are trained, but that they continue to be trained in the traditional female areas often which hamper their employment chances. This is illustrated by the fact that twice as many women as men are unemployed in Sri Lanka (see Fernando, 1986; Heyzer, 1985).

In Malaysia, literacy rates have increased considerably for men as well as women. In 1970, literacy rates were 72 per cent for men and 50 per cent for women, which increased to 83 per cent and 67 per cent respectively in 1983. Women constitute 35 per cent of the students enroled in university. Despite these advances, it appears that female students and trainees conform closely with socially defined roles and continue to be concentrated in the female accepted areas of training. Women who have undergone vocational training are in the fields related to the service sector including hotel, catering, beauty care, tailoring, and commercial work, whereas men have opted for training in technical fields such as metal work, automotive repair and maintenance, electronics, radio and television repair, building, and wood work. A similar disparity can be observed from the enrolment in university courses. Women are concentrated in courses considered more suitable for them such as arts and education, and only a limited number of women enrol in fields like agriculture and engineering (Heyzer, 1985). It must be noted, however, that, although still small, the number of women enroling in the so called non-traditional subjects has increased over the years.

Countries in South Asia including Bangladesh, India, Nepal and Pakistan suffer from very low literacy rates especially when compared to the Southeast Asian countries. For Pakistan the overall illiteracy rate in 1981 was 79 per cent, while for women it was as high as 90 per cent. These low levels of literacy form serious obstacles for women to enter training programmes.

The situation of women's training in Pakistan does not look bright, although some progress has been made. In previous days many training programmes for females aimed solely at training them in "house-making" skills, rather than providing them employable skills. Now a significant trend can be seen where women are seeking enrolment in fields which were until now considered male dominated such as engineering, veterinary, medicine, administration, clerical/secretarial, law, banking/insurance, computer technology, designing (including architecture), mass media (technicians and performers) and journalism.

In the last ten years, enrolment of women in educational institutions has increased by about 90 per cent. The participation of female students in secondary vocational institutes is growing gradually, and they constitute nearly 35 per cent of the total enrolment, 23 per cent in professional educational institutions, and 24 per cent in universities.

Formal training, for a recognised certificate or diploma, is carried but by the Departments of Education and Labour, and informal training is done by the Social Welfare Department in collaboration with non-governmental organisations, small industries corporations, and the Department of Rural Development.

Since 1980, seven polytechnics for women have been established by the Ministry of Education. The establishment of these polytechnics is the main move towards diversification of training in Pakistan. The skills being imparted are: garment design and manufacturing, architecture, radio-television and electronics technology, commerce, computer technology and secretarial training. Especially in the big cities, there appears to be a great demand for girls trained in these field.

Apart from the polytechnics, there are 163 formal vocational training centres such as commercial training centres, government vocational training institutes, vocational training centres, and technical training centres. These centres are for the majority urban based and, with a few exceptions, they cater mostly for skills like dressmaking, tailoring, and embroidery. There is one technical training centre for women in Karachi which trains girls in architectural drafting, electronics, and repair of household appliances. Another technical training centre in Lahore is being established.

In addition to the formal training facilities, a number of informal arrangements are available especially in rural areas. Most women from rural areas would not get access to formal training anyway since they are not literate. The industrial homes are the oldest form of training centres. They usually train women in traditional female skills such as sewing, knitting, and embroidery. A lot of village girls go to the industrial homes to earn their dowry. The industrial homes are in most cases run by a voluntary agency, and they get some financial assistance from the Social Welfare Department.

Other informal training is imparted through the women's pilot centres which are more broad based and provide, in addition to the above skills, training in literacy, health, and animal husbandry. The Small Industries Corporations have also been running training programmes mostly in carpet weaving, garment making, leather work and textiles. The Social Welfare Department is collaborating with the Appropriate Technology Development Organisation to disseminate certain appropriate technologies, which could be useful for women in reducing the workload of household activities and in providing them opportunities for income generation. Technologies which are disseminated include: stoves and biogas plants, candle making, production of matches and washing powder.

The Women's Division has been supporting a number of formal as well as informal training institutions.

At present the National Training Bureau, under the Ministry of Labour, Manpower, and Overseas Pakistanis, is executing the second phase of the National Vocational Training Project. In the first phase no attention was given to women's training. The second phase will include the establishment of five women's training centres. The skills to be imparted in these centres are: office and secretarial skills, repair and maintenance of household appliances, technical and architectural drafting; computer input operation, telephone/telex operation; and photography and commercial illustration (see Government of Pakistan, 1984).

## TRENDS

The advancement of women has been uneven and slow in countries in the region. Some governments have adopted specific policies or enacted legislation bringing about greater integration of women into the labour force. In Japan, the Vocational Training Law makes provision for in-plant training, and specifically protects the rights of women and young girls, encouraging them to utilise the facilities at the vocational training centres.

Some positive trends can be noted in the training opportunities for women. Doors are being opened and women are being encouraged to join courses imparting employable skills in high demand. Pilots project are being set up to create an awareness of the training available in non-traditional skills for women, and to train women in these skills.

Let us look at the Philippines, which is one of the countries making an effort to offer greater diversification in the job market for females by providing greater diversification in their training programmes. A national survey, conducted by the National Manpower Youth Council (NMYC) in the Philippines in 1980, revealed a lack of awareness among women for equal opportunities for men and women in training. It also showed female preferences for courses like dressmaking, cosmetology, stereo-typing, and other white collar occupations. Statistics showed that almost 70 per cent of NMYC graduates were males, although the career development material disseminated nationwide did not specify any sex preference. Most of NMYC's courses are in industrial trades and in high demand. To encourage participation of women in its training programmes it launched pilot training experiments for women in non-traditional occupations. The specific targets were school leavers and unemployed adult women (see Zafra, 1985).

In the Ilocos Region experiment, during the four year period (1979-1982) there were 426 women graduates in non-traditional courses, representing 6.68 per cent of the total female graduates of 6,187. Female participation in training in some of the industrial courses was as follows: drafting 7.8 per cent, welding 12 per cent, electricity 1.30 per cent, garments 63 per cent and silk screen and wood lamination 41.79 per cent. Females also participated in tinsmithing, carpentry, automotive mechanics and basic electronics.

Training outputs of women in non-traditional courses in 1982-1983 in the National Capital Region (Metro Manila) give the following numbers: electronic manufacturing 1,202, welding 125, and consumer electronics 55. There were female graduates also in tailoring, automotive mechanic, and electronic appliance repair courses.

The Municipal Careers Development Project (MCDP), developed by NMYC, utilises para-professional career counselors called "Career Development Agents". The MCDP approach includes career information drives in the local communities, assessment of the needs of the area and neighbouring municipalities where training graduates may be employed, skills training programmes, and placement of graduates in industries within the region. This approach can be useful in creating an awareness of the training opportunities for women.

There has been no formal follow-up study on the employment of female graduates. However, female graduates in welding have been monitored through the Atlantic Gulf and Pacific Company, where some of them were employed after training. The success of the initial batch of female welders at the Honiron Division of the company encourages other divisions to employ female welders as well. The trend in retraining and employment in AGP since 1980 showed that, as of 1983, Honiron Division had increased its number of female welders. Reasons given for the increase are labour migration of male welders; female self-discipline during and off work hours; females' deeper commitment to their jobs; and more positive work attitudes and effectiveness of female welders at the worksite. And, most important - in terms of performance female welders were found to be as good as the male welders.

In other countries, some positive trends are noticeable as well. In Sri Lanka, the government started with courses in masonry for women. It appeared difficult, however, for the women to be employed and for this reason the course was terminated after a couple of years. A non-governmental agency, the Sarvodaya Shramadana movement, also imparted training in masonry. This is a successful scheme since it ensures employment for the trainees and it proves that women are as good masons as men (see Navarathna, 1986, Fernando, 1986).

In Kerala, India, where female literacy rates are the highest, women take up training in new occupations like turners, carpenters, and sheet metal workers (see Gupta, 1986).

In Bangladesh, a non-governmental organisation started with a training and production centre for women to produce hospital equipment such as beds and stationary bicycles (see Carr, 1984).

In Thailand a bus company started training and employing female bus drivers (see Pongpaichit, 1986).

In Korea several big companies took the initiative of training women in non traditional, male dominated fields which were previously inaccessible to women (see Mihye Roh, 1986).

A lot of these trends have been influenced by an outflux of male skilled labour to overseas labour markets. However, it should be ensured that these positive developments are maintained and even strengthened, and that there will not be an increase in the female unemployment rate once the overseas workers return.

These projects mainly show that women are as good as men in a wide range of technical skills. The positive points brought out in these, for the larger part, pilot project, can be used by policy-makers, employers and women and girls themselves to promote the diversification of women's training and employment.

## CONSTRAINTS AND OPPORTUNITIES

As indicated earlier in most countries of the region all training facilities are open to men as well as to women. Nevertheless, women's participation in training is small and in limited fields, which are often related to the service sector preparing women for jobs with low productivity, low responsibility, no security, and few chances of promotion. Moreover, very few women opt for the technical fields of vocational training. In this section an effort is made to analyse the reasons for this bias, and to explore how these could be overcome.

### Constraints

A general constraint for women to participate in training programmes is the burden of domestic work and the responsibility of taking care of children. This results in limited time available that could otherwise be spent for training.

Prevailing social values and attitudes form a serious obstacle for women and girls to participate in training programmes, in general, and non-traditional programmes in particular.

In most societies, preference is given to investments in educating and training for boys, since this is considered more rewarding in the long run. Social values and attitudes are also linked to stereotyping of certain occupations. Girls are often guided in certain directions during their secondary education. They enrol in home economic subjects, while boys receive training in technology related areas. It is not expected of them to opt for subjects like mathematics, science, and physics, and in some cases where separate educational facilities for boys and girls exist these subjects are not even taught to girls. Consequently, the opportunities for further training are severely limited.

In countries where tradition requires separate training facilities for male and female trainees, the number of facilities for girls are considerably less than those for boys. Support facilities such as child care centres and hostels which women require due to their lack of mobility, are few and there is a shortage of female trainers in non-traditional subjects.

In some of the case studies it is observed that officials from training institutions and employers may have discriminatory attitudes towards women engaging in technical training and employment.

However, one of the main constraints is the lack of awareness among planners, employers, parents, and prospective trainees of alternative opportunities. Women especially need to be made aware in their early school days, about the different options available to them. It should be made clear that training in skills other than those for the usual female occupations could lead to jobs with better prospects.

## Awareness Creation and Vocational Guidance

It is not enough for those at the decision-making level to plan and implement training programmes and then wait for individuals to join. This is particularly so when women are expected to join training programmes that are dominated by male trainees. In planning the programmes, awareness creation through the mass media and through change agents must be included. Depending on the target groups, both audio and visual media may be utilised.

Once awareness has been created and interest aroused, vocational guidance will be required. Vocational guidance should include a point from which information on training programmes and the labour market is passed on to the trainers and manpower planners on the one hand, and to the public and individuals on the other hand.

Vocational guidance will prevent over-training for limited or non-existent jobs. It should also give information on related aspects such as financial assistance, accommodation alternatives, childcare facilities, and job prospects.

As part of the guidance the women's existing skills, capabilities, and potentials should be assessed so they do not waste time and energy being trained in areas for which they have little or no aptitude.

In the rural areas, preliminary vocational guidance and counselling can be provided by local women's organisations.

In areas where this may not be possible, mobile units could be arranged. These units could visit areas and show films depicting female role models and interesting, family-oriented features with women in diversified fields of training as the theme. The units could visit girls' schools and also community centres where they would draw attention and interest from the local population - male and female. Accompanying the unit could be women who have received training in a non-traditional field and are currently employed in it.

## Infrastructural Support

### Child care facilities

To encourage women to participate in training programmes and not to give serious consideration to child care facilities is, in essence, to exclude, at the onset, a very large proportion of women from training programmes. It may be true that in many developing countries the family system allows for some other family members to look after the children if the women goes to work. However, such an arrangement often has its constraints. Further tensions may arise in the family, which is already dealing with the new situation of having the woman to leave home for training. Resentment towards the woman may be generally, greater during the training period because she is not yet earning an income. She is probably spending the family income on learning skills which are not even considered "suitable" for her as a women.

Therefore, emphasis should be placed on the establishment of effective childcare centres and kindergartens by the government and private organisations. Attitudes towards childcare centres could become more positive if some of these centres are associated with religious centres such as mosques, churches, or temples. These childcare centres must cater to the needs of different income groups.

## Flexible Training and Duration

Flexible training is training given in response to the needs of individuals and to labour market demand. Training should be provided in areas of skill shortage and good remuneration. In a training programme women should be allowed to select courses which are best suited to their aptitude and to the requirements of the region where she intends to take up employments.

The programme should be flexible enough to make available extra courses, such as remedial courses, to bring women to the required entry level for certain skills.

Training should be provided not as an isolated course but as a training package, offering an opportunity to be trained in other areas related to skills acquisition such as basic accounting, book-keeping, management, positive attitudes towards life, and handling of tensions at home.

Duration of training should allow flexibility to a certain degree. Due to prior obligations or pregnancy, it may not be possible for every trainee to complete a course within a strict time limit. Obstacles during training will increase the number of drop-outs, and will provide poor "models" for other female trainees.

## Financial Incentives

Women are more likely to enter diversified fields of training, if they see good prospects for employment or for other income generating activities once the training is completed. The better the future prospects, the more likely it is that women will take up non-traditional training. An indication of a better future after training could be the availability of credit and other financial incentives. Women are often considered poor credit risks. Credit and other co-operative schemes, saving and post office saving schemes, and banking facilities for women should be established and encouraged particularly for training in non-traditional skills leading to employment or entrepreneurship in non-traditional areas.

Incentives could be provided in the form of scholarships, tuition waivers, and on-the job training. Special entry level positions, specially in non-traditional fields, could be created for women. These positions may be subsidised by the government, private organisations, or industry. In particular, private organisations may be willing to subsidise such positions if they receive tax concession.

## Certification

A large proportion of women acquire or enhance their skills through non-formal means. They may seek employment locally or go to other countries for work. Their bargaining powers, their working conditions and salaries could be improved if they possess certification of their skills. For this purpose the boards of technical education should be encouraged to determine the various levels of skill such as skilled or semi-skilled workers, artisans, craftsmen, and supervisors. A committee should be established for testing and certification of skills acquired through non-formal education means.

Skills standards and tests, that are recognised on a sectoral basis and nation wide, must be established. Mobile testing units should be established, since access to skills testing facilities is particularly difficult for rural women in the rural informal sector.

Also, institutions or enterprises may be authorised to undertake skills tests. The Republic of Korea and Singapore have experience with these approaches, though not specifically for women.

Regional or national trade standards and competency tests should be encouraged, so that they are not "imported" from countries in which they may bear little relevance to an occupation performed locally. Using irrelevant skills standards may have two disadvantages: first, a waste of resources for teaching, and second, a loss of skilled workers to other countries from which the certification standards were "imported".

A difficulty often encountered in connection with certification is the lack of staff skilled in the techniques of testing. APSDEP has been particularly active in trying to find solutions to this question. The Malaysian National Industrial Training and Trade Certification Board has experience in this field, and has co-operated with APSDEP in the provision of advisory services to other countries in the region. The skills standards developed by APSDEP so far are in male dominated occupations. They need to be developed for some of the skills predominantly associated with women and with skills used in the informal urban and rural sectors. This will mean diversification from the traditional fields and the opening of new opportunities.

For instance, in the field of domestic help, in which many women are employed in developing countries, there is no form of certification. Skills testing, resulting in certification in this field, would help prospective employers hire the person for the skills required and it would give the employee better bargaining power.

## Training of Instructors

Adequately trained instructors are a prequisite to the successful implementation of any training schemes. The provision of instructors for the rural sector is particularly problematic. Although it is often difficult to find rural people with the right experience and educational background to attend available instructor training programmes, training rural instructors should be the goal. Female instructors from the rural areas, if employed locally, could serve as role models for other women.

Instructors must be kept up to date about development with regard to instructional methods and the technical aspects of their fields. Periodically re-training and refresher courses could be organised in order to familiarize the trainers with new methods and techniques.

## Follow-up of Training-Evaluation

Planners and trainees would need follow-up activities. For the trainees follow-up would require post-training guidance and assistance in job placement. This is particularly useful to women having completed training in non-traditional skills.

Evaluation of these training programmes is important and useful for the sponsors, funding agencies, and planners of the training programmes.

All training programmes which do not specifically exclude women should be examined specifically from women's point of view. This may create an awareness and commitment to the positive integration of women in the development process. Questions asked may include: Are women aware of the programmes and, if so, to what extent? What is the female participation rate? How are women performing during training? What, if any, are the difficulties they encounter? Why are women participating, or not participating, in non-traditional training? At what rate are graduates employed? How are they performing at their jobs?

Feedback from evaluations should be used in the planning and implementation of new programmes, or in the modification of existing ones.

## Concluding Remarks

Though some advancement has been made in the diversification of women's training in the region, it is still piecemeal and women in occupations dominated by men are rather an exception than a rule. Nevertheless, these exceptions have shown that it is possible and that women can perform as good as men in any occupation.

Since in most Asian countries, all training facilities are open to men as well as women, the bias directing women to limited training fields should be corrected. This should be done in the first place by removing the constraints that prevent women from participating in a wider range of training programmes, and secondly by providing incentives to motivate women to enrol. In countries where tradition requires that separate training facilities be provided for men and women, the training facilities available for men can be opened up for women in separate shifts.

One of the main requirements to propagate a wider range of training areas for women is to publicise success cases, and make women confident that they will gain by opting for these trades. This strategy can work in two directions. It will influence the prospective trainees and also help to change conventional attitudes of employers, planners, and parents.

Support services are required with respect to childcare facilities, hostels, financial incentives for less advantaged groups, vocational guidance etc. When training is imparted with the possibility of self-employment, links should be provided for the trainees with credit facilities and services, and products to be produced should be taken into account.

Girls should not be encouraged to conform to traditional female roles in early stages of their development. Girls and boys should be treated equally during their basic education and should not be directed on the one hand to home economics and on the other hand to technical skills. Subjects taught in secondary schools should be similar at all schools so that girls as well as boys can choose their future occupations freely, and they should not be forced into a certain field.

Training programmes for rural women should take into account the special constraints of this target group. Rural women are usually less mobile than urban women. Collaboration with non-governmental organisations, especially in connection with training for rural women, is recommended.

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# DIVERSIFICATION OF WOMEN'S TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT : EXPERIENCE FROM SELECTED INDUSTRIALISED COUNTRIES

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First of all, I would like to welcome the participants and observers to this Seminar and to express my sincere gratitude to our host government for giving us this opportunity to share our experiences and knowledge on a complex issue which is of concern to all of us: "Diversification of Women's Training and Employment".

The purpose of this paper is to raise several issues, which will be mentioned in varying degrees in the contributions we will hear in the next few days, but which I feel merit special attention. Much of the work I will cite has been carried out recently in western industrialised countries. While cross cultural comparisons may not be appropriate, I think the findings will provide "food for thought" and hopefully stimulate discussion. The findings are in no way conclusive, but will indicate the directions being taken in resolving some of the problems related to occupational segregation by sex.

By way of introduction, I would like to review some of the action taken within the European Community. As early as 1976, the European Centre for the Development of Vocational Training (CEDEFOP) with direct financial support from the European Social Fund and the Commission of the European Communities, assumed a lead role in tackling the problem of occupational segregation. In line with their mandate, CEDEFOP focussed on vocational training as one of the principal instruments for equalising women's opportunities in employment. The predominant feeling was that the majority of female labour was ill-equipped as regards occupational qualifications and occupational mobility, assets which are significant in a period of decline in job vacancies. To make matters worse, the workplaces in which women are concentrated are usually the first to be restructured and rationalised.

In consultation with its major social partners, namely representatives from industry, trade unions, and governmental institutions, CEDEFOP undertook a large-scale research programme[1/] aimed at the diversification of the work undertaken by women. Over 100 vocational training schemes were investigated in Belgium, Denmark, Federal Republic of Germany, France, Ireland, Italy, Luxembourg, the Netherlands, and the United Kingdom. These schemes were selected according to the following criteria: the aim was to open up to women previously inaccessible occupational tracks; qualify them for occupations involving more responsibility or managerial skills; or assist groups of women, including unemployed girls who had not been part of the workforce or were re-entering after a career break.

The programmes were considerably diverse and included such measures as: promoting women in managerial positions in banks; retraining them as skilled mechanics; securing their admission to the postal and police services and to the royal military school as army officers; supporting them as managers of small and medium-size enterprises in such fields as orthodontistry, real estate, and insurance; providing skills in the construction trades (e.g. floor plastering, masonry, turning, milling, fitting, steel casting), instrument regulation, and the technology and marketing of frozen products; training in modern agricultural techniques; and farm management.[2/]

Country reports were prepared and the programmes reviewed in a seminar in 1980[3/] at which time specific factors were found to be common to most and combined to create effective conditions under which training was considered "successful" in meeting its objective. These factors

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[1/] Seeland, S., (nd), Training and labour market policy measures for the vocational promotion of women in the European Community; a synthesis, unpublished working document, CEDEFOP, Berlin

[2/] Morgan - Gerard, F. (1980) Training and Labour Market Policy Measures for The Employment and Occupational Promotion of Women: Technical Summary Report, unpublished working document, CEDEFOP, Berlin

[3/] CEDEFOP, (1983), Innovative Training and Employment of Women: Seminar report; Berlin, 15-17 September 1980.

included the active participation of the social partners involved in making available training opportunities for jobs considered atypical for females, and in taking specific concrete steps to enable girls and women to take advantage of the training. In addition, those persons involved in planning and implementing the vocational orientation, training, and job placement sequence developed the programmes on the basis of a thorough assessment of the qualifications and motivation of the potential participants, and a precise survey of the qualifications required for job entry or occupational mobility. They then created tailor-made training sequences incorporating a vocational information and motivation phase, a skills training phase, and follow-up lasting until the trainees were established in stable positions. Other significant factors contributing to project effectiveness were: financial incentives or similar arrangements; training for trainees and counsellors on methods to assist women having social or psychological problems adapting to predominantly male training environments; a concrete advantage upon completion of training, such as a diploma, salary increase, increased occupational status, or increased levels of responsibility; and the support of work councils or trade unions. Training methodologies found to be effective included "alternance" schemes combining theoretical instruction with practical training; co-determination by the trainees of the design of the training; and non-formal learning methods.

These so-called "innovative" training measures, whether institution or firm-based, proved to be pilot projects and model schemes for the most part. In other words, they were "successful" under ideal conditions, "tailor-made", and carried out through the commitment of the social partners and the participating firms. The question which must be asked then is how to transform experimental programmes into mainstream training so to make more of an impact on bringing about equality of opportunities for women. Rather than peripheral experimental schemes, there is a need for long-term programmes, having secure funding, tenured staff, and a permanent future.

To confirm or refuse the initial findings of these pilot schemes in terms of whether or not such training programmes could open up the labour market to women, CEDEFOP carried out a second survey[4] on in-firm initial and continuing training for women. Findings were both positive and negative. On the positive side in-firm training can better integrate women into the firm and foster bonds between the female employees and management, women often become aware of their rights as workers and more involved in practices of social negotiation; the firm begins to regard training and work organisation within a single context; and all the parties involved become more aware of the potential and capabilities of women workers. However, it was also clear that the access of women to in-firm training still remained difficult, with employers weighing the costs incurred in training increased numbers of women, hiring additional staff, and providing support measures to accompany training and to facilitate women's participation. All of these factors combined to present serious obstacles to the integrated of women in firms.

Many of the suggestions for transforming experimental programmes into mainstream ones focussed on supply side factors such as altering education systems, removing stereotypes in textbooks and the media, increasing vocational orientation and motivational courses, improving the proficiency of career and job placement officers, and training women for specific labour market vacancies, etc. While these aspects are indeed important, there are also other aspects of the problem which should not be overlooked. For example, the marginality of pilot or demonstration projects is quite evident when view alongside the overall investment allocated to national training and employment promotion programmes. Pilot projects for women are typically designed with little regard for the long-term financial and policy implications of their expansion or replication on a large-scale. A recent report by the

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[4] Manpower Services Commission, (1981), "Equal Opportunities in Vocational Training: Case Studies of Career Development for Women in Companies: Final United Kingdom Report to CEDEFOP, unpublished manuscript, Moorfoot, U.K.; Oels, M. and S. Seeland, (1985) Equality of Opportunity and Vocational Training: Five Years on vocational training measures for women in the European Community, CEDEFOP. Berlin.

Orgainisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD)[5/] concludes that training may be more "segregated" than employment. Therefore, a political will is expressly needed, which goes beyond the formal expression of equality to set up mechanisms within training systems for enforcing measures which will remove obstacles to the diversification to women's training. An important group to sensitise would be training planners, practitioners and occupational counsellors, the combined efforts of whom appear to direct women into classroom training which is an extension of female domestic roles rather than into apprenticeships or similar schemes aimed at true vocations.

We must therefore also consider the equally significant aspect of demand for women's labour, which would include recruitment, promotion and employment policies, and the attitudes of employers. A recent ILO study[6/] indicates that factors limiting the overall demand for women workers may be associated with employers' attitudes regarding the higher costs of women workers. Case studies carried out in seven countries provide data based on interviews with employers and employees (male and female) on such topics as recruitment, hiring, promotion, pay, turnover, and absenteeism. The findings indicate that the perceived higher costs of women due to pregnancy, maternity protection, absenteeism, turnover and cultural restrictions in some countries are contributing factors to employer preferences for male employees. In addition, protective legislation often mitigates against women working in specific occupations. The studies also suggest that pre-conceived notions regarding suitability of men and women for particular occupations exercises a major role in segmenting the labour market. Some reasons given why women are not suitable for certain jobs include lack of muscular strength and their inability to supervise and manage. Furthermore, women are preferred for some jobs due to their supposed greater docility, their willingness to work for lower wages, and their

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[5/] OECD, (1984) "Training Programmes and Some Related Measures to Even Out Occupational Sex Imbalances," unpublished report prepared by the Evaluation Panel, Paris.

[6/] Anker, R. and C. Hein, (1985) "Why Third World Urban Employers Usually Prefer Men," International Labour Review, vol. 124, no. 1, p. 73-90.

previous household experience which is cited as the rationale for entering such occupations as teaching, nursing, and catering.

It is evident that a range of action is needed to alter education and training systems which prepare and direct women into a narrow range of occupations that are most often an extention of household responsibilities, and which discourage them from entering training for customarily "male" occupations. Training and information campaigns could be directed to key decision-makers or "gate-keepers", e.g. those individuals who influence the entry and participation of women in training and employment such as recruitment officers, occupational counsellors, job placement officers, supervisors, trainers, managers, and planners at the enterprise and institution level. In addition, there is an urgent and critical need for detailed statistical data on the occupational structure of the female labour force and participation rates of women in training. Research is also needed on women's occupational profiles and performance to dismiss or support pre-conceived ideas regarding "suitability" and costs to the employer.

The negative attitudes about women's ability to supervise and manage is a case in point. The participation rates of women in managerial and supervisory occupations are indeed exceedingly low world-wide, and the case studies we will be hearing provide statistical evidence of this phenomenon in the Asian Region. In the EEC countries and Scandinavia, the percentage of female managers ranges from 11 percent to 17 percent. In the United Kingdom one out of nine managers are women and less than one percent of the total occupy senior management positions.[7/] In addition, female managers tend to be concentrated in female dominated professions such as catering, retail trade, education, and office administration. Evidence from recent studies of the profiles of male and female managers in the U.K. and their differences and similarities strongly suggest that in terms of managerial efficiency and performance, there are far more similarities

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[7/] Davidson, M.J. and C.L. Cooper (n.d.) "Female Managers in Britain: a comparative overview," University of Manchester, Institute of Science and Technology, U.K.

than differences. However, there are major differences in relation to job status and employment factors, career development, occupational stress levels and attitudes towards female managers compared to their male counterparts. In fact, women tend to be more highly qualified and yet encounter more prejudice in the workplace concerning their aptitude.[8/] Career path studies have led many researchers in Europe and the USA to conclude that women's careers are less affected by individual traits (e.g. educational credentials) than by structural variables (e.g. the proportion of women managers in an organisation, which affects how women are perceived).[9/] The latter, which refers to the dynamics of the organisational environment, appears to influence negatively the upward mobility of women managers.[10/]

The above situation has given rise to a range of training programmes for women managers in the European Community and the U.S.A. Based on training needs assessments and reviews of management training programmes for both male and female managers, women managers and professionals appear to receive inadequate job training compared to their male colleagues. One study indicates that not only were men more likely to acquire general management experience in their careers, they were 2/3 more likely than women to receive senior management training.[11/] Needs assessments show that aside from confidence building and assertion skills, women felt that they needed inter-personal skills, delegation skills and skills to cope with sexual stereotyping and prejudice.

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[8/] Ibid

[9/] Brown, L.K., (n.d.) "Female Managers in the United States and Europe: Corporate Boards, MBA Credentials, and the Image/Illusion of Progress," in V. Hammond (ed.) Practical Approaches to Women's Management Development, Report of the Seminar, December 8-9, 1983, European Foundation for Management Development, Brussels.

[10/] Harlan, A. and C. Weiss, (1980), Moving Up: Women in Managerial Careers, Third Progress Report, Centre for Research on Women, Wellesley, Massachusetts.

[11/] Davidson, M.J. (nd.) "Women in Management within a Training Context," article prepared for North West Business Monthly, Department of Management Sciences, University of Manchester, Institute of Science and Technology, U.K.

Possible solutions for overcoming some of these problems would include policy changes and action to help dual-career couples and to minimise the barriers which have been found to be particularly pertinent to female managers. The former might entail flexible working arrangements; reasonable maternity and maternity leave, including for reasons of child illness; career break schemes and re-training schemes for women; adequate daycare facilities; and opportunities for promotion without re-location. To minimise the firm-level barriers facing women, some experts advocate "affirmative action" measures entailing positive recruitment strategies; better career planning, including firm-level measures to evaluate and re-assess career opportunities, devise new career structures, and ensure training for women; and training programmes for male and female managers together to reduce sex role stereo-typing and misperceptions.

The final point I would like to mention is an area in which the potential for women workers is again great, yet if measures are not taken, women will be by-passed and/or relegated to low skill and low positions. I refer to the area of advanced technology. The impact of new technologies and the prospects for women's employment are not yet fully understood. Advanced technology has had an important and profund impact on the labour market, changing not only the distribution of employment between sectors and industries, but also the structure and content of jobs. Advocates of advanced technology claim that it leads to new job opportunities, upgrading of skills, improved working conditions, and more job satisfaction.

Recent studies however, provide a different picture as regards women workers.[12/] Where new office technology is introduced, there tends to be a shift towards higher grade staff, which on the surface would appear to offer women workers opportunities for occupational advancement. In reality, only a fraction of office workers have been

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[12/] See: Trades Union Congress, (1984), Women and New Technology, London; Warneke, D. (1983) Micro-electronics and Office Jobs, ILO, Geneva; and Olerup, A., L. Schneider, E. Monod (eds) (1984) Women, Work and Computerisation: Opportunities and Disadvantages, Elsevier Science Publishers, Amsterdam.

found to benefit in this way. Women are being deskilled or retrenched, and where new jobs are created, they usually require high levels of technical skills and are filled by men due to the skill gaps experienced by many women. Current research findings[13/] suggest that the skill and knowledge requirements of managers, technicians, and skilled workers are changing with the advent of advanced technologies, and that training therefore, should assume a broader role, one which would help determine the direction and the pace of technological change, rather than respond passively to it. For women, education and training are clearly essential to increase their access to and participation in jobs which have arisen or been modified by the introduction of advanced technologies. The need for broad-based skills has been suggested[14/] if jobs are not to be downgraded. Too often women receive task-specific and firm-specific training which is non-transferable, and hence does not enhance their occupational mobility. Training for women typically does not include the theoretical knowledge which would provide the "users" with the conceptual tools to analyse and understand new technical systems and assume jobs requiring these skills.

It has also been noted that the introduction of advanced technologies requires higher levels of skills and increased specialisation. Yet where jobs have been modified and new skills required, it is not unusual to find women do not have the necessary qualifications. Not only does their formal education fail to provide the necessary background in technical and mathematical skills, but vocational training for women characteristically directs them away from such areas of skill development. In this regard, research is needed to identify the vocational orientation and training requirements of women entering or using advanced technologies.

Another area of major concern, is job satisfaction. Technology has had an impact on the organisation, pace and control of work. Invariably

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[13/] Alfthan, T. (1985) "Developing skills for Technological Change: Some policy issues," International Labour Review, vol. 124, No. 5.

[14/] Warneke, Diane (1983) Micro-electronics and Office Jobs, ILO, Geneva.

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new technology is introduced by management with little regard for employees' participation. A recent study conducted in Norway[15/] indicates that there are often gaps between the aim of management for effective technological transition and change and the training and job expectations of the employees. Like worker skills, systems design has a social dimension. In order to design efficient technical systems, analysts must understand what workers actually do. If ignored, day-to-day activities and skills used in the office can be a constant obstacle to the achievement of organisational objectives for efficiency and productivity. These findings have important implications for workplace automation, and in particular for women workers. Yet many office automation programmes have had disappointing results. Most failures occur when efforts focus on technical solutions and the "human factors" are neglected. Research conducted over the past few years has shown that office technology can be introduced with better results if "users" are involved in the design and introduction. Since the majority of users in offices have been found to be women, attention has now focussed on training methods which will maximise their participation. These issues, as well as many others concerning the training needs of women workers, merit our serious consideration, especially in the context of newly industrialising economies.

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[15/] Lie, M. and Bente Rasmussen, "Step by Step: New Systems in an Old Structure," Institute of Social Research in Industry, Trondheim, Norway.

# CHAPTER IV

# SUMMARY OF CASE-STUDIES

# SUMMARY CASE STUDY
# INDIA

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## BACKGROUND

### Government Policies Relating to Women and Development

It was not until the early 1970s that the government of India gradually became aware that gender-neutral policies and programmes cannot by themselves correct an imbalance in status that has existed for centuries and, to ensure actual equality in status between men and women, programmes and policies would have go to beyond neutrality and be specifically weighted in favour of women.

In India the conscious inclusion of women as participants in development, rather than targets of welfare policies, began in the late 1970. The employment of women and their economic independence emerged as a major area of concern and an important and recognised means of raising the status of women. In 1975, a cell was set up in the Ministry of Labour to look after matters related to women in the labour force. In the same year the Equal Remuneration Ordinance was promulgated (later to be replaced by the Equal Remuneration Act) to ensure equal wages for men and women doing the same work. Shortly thereafter, in 1977, the Planning Commission (the body responsible for drawing up the country's development plans) set up a Working Group on the Employment of Women for preparation of the Sixth Five-year Plan.

The Sixth Five-year Plan (1980-85) was thus the first of the country's development plans to include a chapter on 'Women and Development', clearly spelling out the need to raise the social and economic status of women by a variety of programmes.

The Seventh Plan (1985-90) also included a separate chapter on women entitled 'Socio-Economic Programmes for Women'. The allocation for women's programmes has been considerably enhanced in the Seventh Plan. For socio-economic programmes for women an amount of Rs. 195 million (US$15,294,118) has been provided against an amount of Rs.92.5 million (US$7,254,902) in the Sixth Plan. Three new items with substantial outlays have also been provided: the promotion of women's development corporations with an amount of Rs.160 million, the establishment of a women's development, planning and monitoring cell with an amount of Rs.5 million, and the support of training-cum-employment programmes for women with an outlay of Rs.45 million.

## Women in the Labour Market

Even allowing for the difference in the definition of "worker" between the Census of 1971 and 1981, the female work participation rates in the country showed a definite increase between the years 1971 and 1981 rising from 12.06% to 13.99%. The male labour participation rate, on the other hand, registered a slight decrease from 52.61% in 1971 to 51.62% in 1981. While the increase in the female work participation rate is a positive trend, the fact remains that the majority of the women workers are engaged in low income, low skill jobs. An increase in the number of women workers in this context, therefore, does not necessarily mean an improvement in their economic status.

The percentage distribution of women labour into broad occupational categories in 1971 and 1981 was as follows :

| Year | Cultivators | Agricultural labourers | Household workers | Other |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1971 | 29.63 | 50.5 | 4.3 | 15.6 |
| 1981 | 37.58 | 44.79 | 4.44 | 13.27 |

Thus, both in 1971 and in 1981, about 88% of the women workers were in agriculture. The number of male workers in agriculture on the other hand was much lower, 67.44% in 1971, which further declined to 63.54% in 1981. Thus, while men shifted out of the poorly paid agricultural sector, women having no option continued. In non-agricultural occupation also, women work mostly in the unorganised sector where wages are low and working conditions poor. In fact, more than 90% of the women workers in the country work in the unorganised sector.

Employment of women in the organised sector, though low is gradually increasing. While the growth rate of employment in the organised sector as a whole during the decade 1971 to 1982 was 2.8 percent, the annual growth rate of women's employment was 3.8 percent. However, in the organised sector, as in the unorganised, most of the women do unskilled or semi-skilled jobs.

If women are to be encouraged to work in large numbers, measures will have to be taken to lighten the burden of family responsibilities, which even today are solely the women's concern. In India, under some of the labour laws, the employer is required to set up creches for the children of women workers. Such provisions exist in the Factories Act, 1948, the Plantations Labour Act, 1951, the Mines Creche Rules under the Mines Act, 1952, the Contract Labour (Regulation and Abolition) Central Rules, 1971, the Beedi and Cigar Workers Act, 1966 etc. In addition to this, the Central Social Welfare Board also gives grants to voluntary organisations for setting up creches/daycare centres for children of working or ailing mothers. The outlay for this was been increased more than five times in the Seventh Plan (1985-90) to 500 million.

As regards maternity benefits, certain acts (the Maternity Benefit Act, 1961, the Employees'State Insurance Act, 1948) make it incumbent for the employers to give paid maternity leave of twelve weeks to women employees. However, these acts apply only to the organised sector, more precisely to a part of it, and therefore the proportion of women who benefit from them is small. Untill recently, there was no provision for maternity benefits for women in the unorganised sector. However, the State Government of Gujarat has, during the year 1986-1987, started a scheme for giving maternity benefits to rural unorganised labour.

## Position of Women in Education and Training

### . Education

Lack of literacy and low levels of education continue to be the major problem facing the Indian population, particularly Indian women, today. Although national policy does not discriminate between males and females in access to education and training (rather at the elementary level, special concessions have been make to encourage the enrolment of girls), in practice educational and training institutions often adopt restrictive policies in the kind of vocational courses or work experience provided to girls. Many girls' schools do not have science or mathematics at the secondary level, which means the girls from these schools are barred from entering professions like engineering and medicine or even from taking science courses in colleges. Vocational courses, even in the co-educational schools, usually follow sex stereotypes, teaching needle-work and meal-planning to the girls and photography and carpentry to the boys.

### . Training

The disparity discernible in the field of education continues in vocational and technical training. Women have far more limited access to training facilities than men. Moreover such training facilities as do exist for women reflect and reinforce the existing social bias that women are suitable only for certain occupations like tailoring and needle-work, pickle and jam making, secretarial practice, etc.

## Workers' Organisations

Traditional trade unions in India are still male dominated, and the percentage of women workers in these trade unions is extremely low, around 7%. As a result, trade unions rarely take up the cause of women workers and are sometimes even a party to discrimination against them. However, an interesting phenomenon observed in India during the last decade or so is the emergence of groups of women workers, belonging to the lowest economic strata, who have come together in an attempt to fight for their rights. These groups are sometimes registered as trade unions, sometimes not, but the objective has consistently been to improve the economic standing of its members through group action. Several of these organisations have been extremely successful of which the cases of SEWA and the Working Women's Forum are already well known.

## SELECTED CASE STUDIES

### Training of Rural Women in the Management of Organisations for Economic Activity

In 1981, an interesting experiment involving rural and tribal women was started in the Bankure district of West Bengal, by the Centre for Women's Development Studies (CWDS), a voluntary organisation based in New Delhi.

The project undertaken by the CWDS sought to raise the overall status of the poor, landless, tribal, and rural women of the area. The entry point was the promotion of a gainful economic activity for the women. The economic activity chosen - tussar silk cultivation - was not a conventional one. "Tussar" is a rough silk obtained from egg-sized cocoons which, in their natural state, are found on certain kinds of forest trees. In cultivation, tussar cocoons are reared on plots of land, planted with trees of certain species mainly "arjun" and "asan". The trees do not require very fertile soil. From this point of view, Bankura district, a poorly irrigated and less fertile area of West Bengal, appeared suitable. The next step was to organise the women into groups and get waste land allocated to them by registered deed.

The actual planting of the waste land with seedlings started in the monsoon season of 1983. The entire work of raising the plantations i.e planting, watering, and care of the seedlings and rearing of the tussar cocoons after the trees had grown to a sufficient height, was done by the members of the societies. Since the membership of the societies was large, and all the women could not be employed on the plantation at the same time, work was rotated among small groups.

Initially, all the work was done under the guidance of the CWDS staff and of various experts brought in by them, however the necessity of promoting self-reliance among the women themselves was a priority. For this purpose, a series of five day training workshops at intervals of three months was organised in 1984 and 1985, with selected members of the three societies participating.

The workshops centered around teaching the participants how to organise group activities, elect office bearers, maintain records and accounts, distribute work, manage profits and losses, and the reasons for profit and loss etc. The workshops were largely unstructured, developing in the direction and at the pace desired by the participants. Simple techniques were used for teaching - group discussions, question and answer sessions etc. The training was given by officials of the CWDS and by a management consultant selected for the purpose.

In the interviews held with the participants and other members of the societies to ascertain the impact of the project, the effect of the training was apparent. All the women interviewed unanimously agreed that the project and the training programme had helped them a great deal. They pointed out that they had not had to migrate in search of work since the starting of the project, as the project provided them with sustained work for 3-5 months in a year. Apart from the economic benefit, it was quite evident that the women enjoyed the new status that the project had given them. Serveral pointed out that the men who earlier had not listened to their opinions or given them much importance, were now compelled to do so. The women were also aware of their increased self confidence.

The work of the societies is now done largely by the women themselves. Records of the meetings are kept, accounts maintained, and work distributed to different members by rotation, so that all of them earn some wages. The basic principles of managing group work have been understood. Dependence on the CWDS is still present, which is natural, but appears to be decreasing.

## Training of Women as Para-veterinarians

In large parts of rural India, animal husbandry and dairying are major economic activities. The women in these areas have, by custom, been closely associated with such activities as feeding, caring for, and managing the animals. Yet the importance of their role in this sector has, untill fairly recently gone unrecognised. Policies and programmes relating to the dairy sector have been targeted at men, and women's access to dairy technology, extension, credit, information, and cooperatives has been limited. In recent years, however, efforts have been made in several states to integrate women into the dairy movement. These efforts have been supported by the government and private organisations and have met with varying degrees of success. One of the more successful efforts is the women's dairy programme of the Bhagavatula Charitable Trust, a non-governmental agency located in Andhra Pradesh.

The Bhagavatula Charitable Trust (BCT) is a non-governmental voluntary agency working for rural development in Yellamanchili block of Vishakapatnam district in Andhra Pradesh. In animal husbandry/dairying activities in particular, the BCT has broken new ground by setting up a programme to train women as village-based para-veterinarians.

As part of its regular animal husbandry programme, the BCT had arranged for bank loans to be given to selected persons, men and women, to buy dairy animals. However, one gap that was experienced by the farmers was the non-availability of veterinary services at the village level. While the government veterinary network provided free services, they did not extend to the village level. The BCT had its own veterinary services, but these too were not available at the village level. To fill this gap a scheme to train pare-veterinarians was designed. Since a large number of the dairy farmers who had taken loans and purchased cattle were women, it was felt that training women, rather than men, may be more appropriate.

The programme started in 1984, with thirty three women from 17 villages. Most of the women (28 out of 33) were deserted or widowed, selected because of their economic need and the fact that they were more mobile and independent. A stipend of Rs.150/- per month, @Rs.5/- per day, was offered to compensate for loss in wages during training.

The training was for a period of three months. As two thirds of the women selected were illiterate (22 out of 33), simple teaching techniques were used such as familiar language, graphs and charts, repetition of lessons, and frequent practicals.

The trained para-veterinarians, on return to their villages, were paid a salary of Rs.75/- per month by the BCT, and a further Rs.25/- as an incentive if they were recommended by their veterinary supervisor. On an average, each para-veterinarian received about 5 cases a week. Back-up support was given to her by a veterinary doctor hired by the BCT.

Since the idea of training illiterate and semi-literate women as para-veterinarian was totally new, many doubts were initially harboured by the trainees themselves, government officials, and the villagers. However, by the end of the course, the trainees were confident of their abilities, and the officials and villagers convinced of their qualifications. The programme has not only made basic veterinary services available at the village level, but has also made it possible to reach women dairy farmers to guide and advise them about livestock management and dairying. It has also allowed the trainees themselves to secure employment with a steady income. Above all it has helped woman enter a new occupational area and achieve success in it.

### Training of Women in Block-printing by the Punjab Women and Children Development & Welfare Corporation

Most income generating programmes for women, centre around promoting self-employment by making available finance, marketing assistance, and raw materials. There are however, a large number of women who do not have the ability to take up and sustain an independent economic activity. For such women, programmes are necessary which not only train them in a skill, but also ensure them of employment. The hand-block printing unit of PUMJAC at Mohali, near Dhandigarh, is part of one such programme.

Block-printed textiles and linen have a fairly good market in India, and it was felt that women trained in this skill would be able to earn an adequate income. It was also a comparatively new area for women and, hence, worth attempting for the sake of diversification.

The Government of India supported the scheme, and funds were made available for the training from the Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD). However, one of the conditions of the release of the grant was that the women would be assured employment with an income of at least Rs.400/- per month (US$31.37) for a minimum period of five years.

The training programme was for fifty women. Preference was given to women in distress and those from low-income and disadvantage families. The training started in March 1985 and was continued for a period of one year. A stipend of Rs.250/- per month (US$19.61) was given to the trainees during the training period.

Advice regarding the formulation and content of the course was given by the Punjab Textile Corporation, a State Government agency producing and marketing textiles. A master craftsman was also identified by the Textile Corporation to act as trainer. As most of the women had very low educational qualifications or were totally illiterate, the training given was largely practical. The women were taught dyeing, bleaching, mixing of colours, block-printing etc. Some theoretical training was also given on styles of printing. The women were taught to operate some simple machines used for the work. At the completion of training, the training centre was converted into a production unit employing the women trainees as skilled workers.

The unit has been functioning for approximately 3 months. It receives the majority of its printing orders from the Punjab Textile Corporation which supplies the material for printing. Some private orders are also taken. Payment is made on piece-rate basis, hence the wages of the women vary according to their output. During the few months that the unit has been operating, the women have been able to earn an average income of between Rs.550/- (US$43.13) to Rs.650/- (US$50.98) per month. With time and experience, this amount is likely to increase.

## Training of Women in Electronics at the Punjab Wireless Systems Limited (PUNWIRE)

In 1984, the Punjab Women and Children Development and Welfare Corporation (PUNWAC) approached several public sector undertakings in Punjab involved in the manufacture of electronic goods and equipment, to find out whether they could train and absorb a total of 100 women in their undertakings. As an incentive, PUNWAC offered a training stipend of Rs.250/- (US$19.61) per women per month for six months, plus the reimbursement of some of the costs incurred in hiring trainers and purchasing training equipment. This amount was to be made available to PUNWAC by the Government of India and the Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD). Several of the undertakings agreed to the proposal, among them the Punjab Wireless Systems Limited (PUNWIRE).

PUNWIRE is a public sector undertaking of the Punjab Government established in 1975 for producing high technology communication products such as transceivers, general purpose receivers, wireless sets, base-station repeaters, duplex radios, wireless telephones, etc. as well as a wide range of accessories.

To meet its increasing manpower requirements, the firm has both its own recruitment policy based on an annual assessment of manpower needs and its own training policy. The minimum and maximum age limits

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for recruitment to non-executive, technical jobs are 18 and 25 years respectively. Persons recruited are trained on-the-job for a period of one year. A stipend is paid to the trainees during training period. The amount of the stipend varies according to the qualification of the trainee. After one year, the trainees are absorbed by the firm and given salaries based on their level of qualification.

While there is no stated preference for one sex or another in recruitment procedures, women are highly represented in assembly line jobs (operators). In other jobs such as technicians, and technical assistants i.e. higher level jobs, there is no specification regarding the sex of a candidate.

The training programme began in April 1985, and 33 women were selected. Trainees were given theoretical training for 6 months followed by practical, on-the-job training in soldering, assembly etc. In accordance with the pattern of stipends, the diploma holding trainees received Rs.500/- (US$39.21) during the first six months of training, and Rs.600/- (US$47.05) for the next six months, I.T.I. certificate holders received Rs.375/- (US$29.41) and Rs.425/- (US$33.33), matriculates and general education trainees received Rs.300/- (US$23.53) and Rs.350/- (US$27.45).

All of the 33 women have completed one year of training and have been absorbed as regular employees of PUNWIRE. The women with matriculation and general education qualifications have been absorbed as operators with a starting salary of approximately Rs.850/- (US$66.66) per month. The women with I.T.I. qualifications have been absorbed as technicians with a starting salary of approximately Rs.900/- (US$70.58) per month, and the diploma holders have been appointed as technical assistants, and receive a starting salary of approximately Rs.1,150/- (US$90.19) per month. On initial appointment, the work done by all persons is practically the same, although the work given to I.T.I. certificate and diploma holders is somewhat more sophisticated in nature. However, promotion prospects for I.T.I. certificate holders and diploma holders are better, since according to the policy of the firm, diploma holders will be eligible for promotion to supervisory rank after two years, and I.T.I. certificate holders after about ten.

The intervention of PUNWIRE and the financial support given for this particular programme is important because it has resulted in a large number of girls being recruited not only at operator level which might have been done under the firm's own programme, but also at higher levels as technicians and technical assistants.

## Training Women in Electronic in the West Bengal Electronic-Industry Development Corporation (WEBEL)

The programme under review is one taken up by the West Bengal Electronic Industry Development Corporation (WEBEL) at the instance of the Department of Women and Child Development, Government of India, with funds for the Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD). The programme is part of a larger scheme, the ultimate objective of which is to improve the position of women by training them in employable skills and ensuring their employment. This particular programme involves training of young women in assembling electronic equipment and setting them up in employment on completion of training.

Forty young women were selected for the programme. A conscious decision had been taken at the very start of the programme that women from the under-privileged sectors of society would be chosen. Consequently, it was decided to limit the selection to young women living in state-assisted orphanages and homes for the destitute. The minimum educational qualification required was a Class X standard. The girls were then selected on the basis of their performance in a test.

In the initial six months of training, theoretical training was given at the Research and Development Centre of WEBEL, followed by six months of in-plant training at any one of the WEBEL units. During the training the girls were given a stipend of Rs.250/- (US$19.16) per month and on completion, a certificate of experience.

Of the 40 women selected for the training programme, 5 have already completed their training and have been engaged in different units of WEBEL. The remaining 35 women, are still at various stages of training. The five women who have completed their training are now getting an amount of Rs.400/- (US$31.37) per month as emoluments.

Regarding programme effectiveness, the social objective has certainly been achieved in as much as women from the poorest sectors of the economy have become employable in a skill for which there is a growing market demand. Regardless of whether the girls are ultimately absorbed as regular employees, or set up in ancillary units, the income they will earn is likely to be higher than they would have earned elsewhere.

## Training for the Post-graduate Diploma in Management at the Indian Institute of Management, Calcutta

With the professionalisation of management in India, the demand for qualified managers has been growing. To cater to this demand, a large number of institutes offering management courses have been established both, at the national and state levels. Today individuals possessing management degrees/diplomas are offered some of the highest paid jobs in the country yet the field has remained more or less a male preserve.

The job opportunities available to persons with professional management qualifications, however, are so prevalent that the promotion of training for women in professional management is well worth considering. The programme selected for review is a diploma course in management run by the Indian Institute of Management in Calcutta. The training programme is not intended for women only.

The I.I.M., Calcutta has no separate policy regarding the training of women. Women candidates sit for the admission test along with other candidates, and if they qualify on merit, they are selected for training. Initially, the I.I.M. gave selective consideration to the marks secured by female candidates in the admission test, in order to ensure and encourage the entry of women in the management programme. This practice has been discontinued, possibly because large numbers of women now qualify for admission.

The age group of the participants is primarily between 22 and 27 years. The objective of the training programme is to produce skilled managers for Indian industry. The fields of study are wide and varied. Students are also required to work on projects for their employers during the first summer vacation. Upon successful completion of the course, a student is awarded a post graduate diploma in management (PGDM), equivalent to a master's degree in business management.

The institute also has a placement bureau to help students in finding a permanent job as well as a summer placement. Students are unusually recruited by organisations, as management trainees, but students having prior work experience may also move directly into managerial positions. The placement bureau collects information regarding personnel requirement policies and practices for the managerial cadre from organisations all over the country, and communicate this information to the students. Applications from students are sent to the organisations, after which the organisations visit the campus and select students for recruitment into the management cadre.

Although the programme reviewed is not designed strictly for women, it represents one in which the entry of women in large numbers should be encouraged, not only because of the higher salary that such women could earn, but because it would result in an increased participation of women in important decision- making position.

## Training Women as Data Preparation Assistants at the National Vocational Training Institute, (NVTI) New Delhi

To cater to the demand for skilled manpower in the country, the Directorate General of Employment and Training, under the Ministry of Labour, Government of India, runs a number of training schemes at various institutes all over the country. Among these institutes are a few exclusively for the training of women, foremost of which is the National Vocational Training Institute for Women in New Delhi, set up under an ILO/SIDA assisted project to promote and upgrade women's vocational training. The NVTI, offers several different training courses for women - some traditional, some non-traditional. Of the non-traditional courses offered by the institute, the most recent course to be introduced is the training of women as data preparation assistants for computers. The first group of trainees completed their course in September 1986, and the second is currently undergoing training.

A data preparation assistant's job basically involves feeding data into a computer and, therefore, the skills required are not very sophisticated. However, it is one of several new categories of jobs that have come into being as a result of the country's move towards computerisation, and as such offers new employment prospects. The salaries for such jobs are also attractive. A data preparation assistant can usually get a starting salary of Rs.1,200/- (US$94.11) per month.

The course for data preparation assistants is of one year's duration, of which six months is spent at the NVTI for theoretical training and six months in an industry or office with computer installations, for on-the-job training. The course admits twenty women every year. Applications for admission to the course are invited through advertisements in various newspapers.

The minimum educational qualification for admission is matriculation or its equivalent with an aggregate of at least a 50% score, and with science and mathematics as compulsory subjects. Preference, however, is given to those who have passed Class XII, with physics, chemistry and mathematics as subjects.

During the six months at the NVTI, the trainee is given basic information about computers, their components and uses, input and output devices, how to represent data, process data, organise files etc. The trainee also completes laboratory exercises in data entry and data collection. For the subsequent six months of the on-job training, the course content is determined by the industry/office to which the trainee is attached.

Since the first group of trainees only completed their one year's training in September 1986, it is still too early to assess how effective the course has been, and whether or not the trainees will be employed easily. None of the women trained in the first group have so far secured employment, but a waiting period of four to five months between the completion of a course and appointment to a job is "normal".

The course appears to be a popular one. Moreover in the context of the country's steady move towards computerisation, it is likely that it will be one of the NVTI's more effective courses for preparing women for the employment market.

## Training Rural Women in Handicrafts - Upgrading of skills for a New Market

In the rural areas of India, the production of handicrafts is part of the traditional way of life of the people. Such production is sometimes the main occupation of the rural artisan, but more often men and women do such work as a secondary activity to supplement the family income. In recent times, a great deal of interest has been directed towards rural handicrafts, and there has been a growing demand for these products in the urban and export markets. The government has set up several training centres in different parts of the country to train rural men and women in traditional handicrafts adopted to modern tastes and use. Several private institutes have also been set up with the intention of preserving traditional crafts while, at the same time, orienting existing skills to the modern market demand. "NAIKA" of Delhi is one such organisation set up as a promotional and training centre for theatre crafts and rural handicrafts.

NAIKA was set up in New Delhi in 1968 as a registered trust. While its original objective was to set up a museum for theatre crafts, it soon found itself branching out into the training of rural men and women in handicrafts. The basic materials used for these handicrafts are the same as were used for the traditional theatre crafts, paper, papier-mache, wood, terra-cotta and cloth. New designs and improved quality make the products acceptable to the discerning urban buyer.

NAIKA started its work with a centre at Meherauli, a rural area close to Delhi. At this centre, several persons, men as well as women, were trained under master-craftsmen to produce various kinds of handicrafts. The training was not for any specific period but continued as part of the production process. A number of the persons trained are today employees of NAIKA, at both its sales centre and at outlets like the Central Cottage Industries Emporium. Bulk orders for certain handicrafts are also placed with NAIKA by different organisations. The Meherauli centre employs 75 persons out of which 60 are women. The employees are paid a daily wage ranging from Rs.15/- (US$1.17) to Rs.28/- (US$2.19). The training imparted is largely unstructured, but care is taken to teach all the skills to all persons involved.

Apart from the 75 persons whom NAIKA has trained and employed at the Mehrauli centre, others (about 500 in all) have also been trained by NAIKA. For the latter, NAIKA conducted a 3 months' training course at their Meherauli centre. The trainees were usually sponsored by the government - the All India Handicrafts Board, the Department of Agriculture etc. Most of the trainees sponsored were women, without any background or experience in handicrafts. The training was given to groups of thirty participants by a master-craftsmen at the Mehrauli centre. This training, as in the case of the training given to their own employees, was in multi-purpose skills. Participants were taught to handle a variety of materials and produce different kinds of articles. After the completion of the training, the trainees returned to their villages and the more enterprising among them set up their own units for the production of handicrafts. The remainder continued this work as a secondary occupation. NAIKA itself keeps a list of the names of all the persons trained by them, and gives them orders on a contract basis.

Though the field is a traditional one, the training imparted by NAIKA is important for several reasons: a) handicrafts training does not require any educational qualifications or sophisticated skills on the part of the trainees, and hence can easily be taught to a large number of uneducated women in rural areas, b) handicrafts are traditionally an acceptable occupation for women, and women are able to earn a good income from it, and c) handicrafts can conveniently be taken up as an additional occupation by women.

The field of handicrafts, therefore, possesses considerable potential for the employment of women particularly uneducated women in rural areas. With limited training and with access to sophisticated urban and export markets, the income derived by rural women could be increased substantially.

## ANALYSIS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In selecting the programmes for inclusion in this paper, care has been taken to see that they cover a variety of employment and a cross-section of Indian women from rural as well as urban areas. While newly emerging fields of employment are generally to be found in urban areas, several innovative programmes have been tried in rural areas as well. Moreover, as the bulk of India's population and its workforce remains in rural areas, any study on employment and training which leaves out this rural population can hardly be considered complete.

For a proper appreciation of the programmes, the context in which each programme occurs will have to be understood. One of the serious concerns in India today is the rapid depletion of forest cover, resulting in soil erosion and ecological damage. Foraging for fuel and fodder has traditionally been a women's job, and depletion of forests has meant that women have to travel further and further afield in search of fodder and fuel. In tribal areas, forests provide a source of livelihood for the women since forest produce and fuel are usually collected and sold by them.

It is part of present government policy to encourage women's organisations to take up afforestation and waste land development projects. However, mere afforestation, or restoration of the forest cover, will not be enough. People will have to be taught to manage the forests and earn their living from them, and at the same time, to prevent further depletion. It is in this context that the CWDS's programme assumes importance. The CWDS has trained rural women of Bankure not merely to cover the land with vegetation and get employment and income from it, but to do so through groups, so that exploitation by individuals for private gain is ruled out. Moreover, the women have also been taught to manage these groups and steer them towards a common goal.

The second programme concerning the training of women as para-veterinarians by the Bhagavatula Charitable Trust in Yollamenchili, Andhra Pradesh, has as its background the dairy movement in India. In spite of the fact that women have always been closely associated with dairy work and livestock care, most policies related to dairying have tended to by-pass them. The training of women in a non-traditional occupation like para-veterinarian, in the otherwise traditional areas of dairying, has opened up new possibilities for employment for rural women.

The Seventh Plan lists electronics as one of the major areas having potential for large-scale employment. Figures of employment in the electronics industry in the country for the last few years confirm this potential, showing a steady increase in numbers for both men and women. However, the figures also reveal that the share of women has remained more or less static at around 15%. Yet electronics is an area where the entry of women has been accepted fairly easily.

The two training programmes in electronics included in this paper illustrate that the electronics industry can offer better prospects for employment and higher incomes for women than most other industries. In the field of electronics, women's access to higher levels such as supervisory jobs is much easier and meets with less resistance than in the traditional manufacturing industries. The two programmes selected have an additional component that makes them attractive - a guarantee of employment.

Another rapidly expanding area of employment in the country is computers, and the course for training women in data preparation has been selected for this reason. Training for other jobs in computers, calling for higher skills should also be introduced soon. However, while setting up such courses, care will have to be exercised to see that there is a match between the skills required by the market and the skills being taught to women.

Though women form more than 20% of the total workforce in India, women are significantly under represented in top-level, decision- making jobs. Management, in particular, is an area in which few women enter, even though the job prospects for professional managers are very good. In recent years, however, growing numbers of women have been seeking careers in management, and the situation also appears to be improving. As the programme on training of women in the Indian Institute of Management in Calcutta reveals, the number of women trainees, is gradually increasing and the prospects for employment for such women are bright. If the participation of women in higher level jobs is to be increased, it is necessary to encourage the entry of women to courses like management training through a variety of measures such as special scholarships, concessional fees, reservation of seats, and publicity programmes pointing out the advantages of a career in management.

The last two programmes included in the study are block-printing of textiles and handicrafts. Block-printing of textiles has a large market, both within the country and outside. Of particular note in the programmes is that the beneficiaries are mostly uneducated women who have few other opportunities for employment.

Handicrafts, although a traditional field, has been selected for inclusion because of the large number of women who can benefit from it. Here again illiterates or poorly educated women can be taught skills and, with the provision of marketing outlets, can earn an adequate income. With the vast majority of India's women being rural and uneducated, programmes like the last two can be an effective means of providing employment for women.

# SUMMARY CASE STUDY
# JAPAN

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## The Japanese Employment System

It is essential to understand Japanese employment practices in order to understand the various aspects of the situation of women in the Japanese labour market. Japanese employment practices are often characterised by what the OECD called the "three pillars": lifetime employment, wages based on seniority, and enterprise-based labour unions (OECD, 1977).

The lifetime employment system implies that, once an employee is recruited, his employer will not discharge him except under extreme circumstances but will employ him until his retirement which is typically at about age sixty. This practice is neither a matter of law nor the subject of collective agreement, but stems from a tacit understanding between labour and management. As a result of the system, the enterprise takes various steps to avoid dismissals even during a severe recession. These include reduction in overtime hours, suspension of hiring, transfer within the enterprise, transfer to a subsidiary, temporary lay-off, no renewal of fixed-term employment, dismissal of temporary workers, and early retirement.

Under this system, the enterprise hires university and school leavers in April of each year, who are expected to become the core work force. For this reason, every year enterprises start prospecting for new employees in the summer and autumn, long before their graduation from school.

Enterprises provide these inexperienced employees with the education and training required for their job through both on-the-job and off-the-job training. Education and training programmes are also available for them at various stages on the promotional ladder. These programmes are supplemented by job rotation which takes place often. In some cases, experienced persons may be hired, but this would not constitute a noticeable intake in the work force as far as large enterprises are concerned.

The principle of the seniority wage system is that a worker joins the enterprise at a relatively low rate of remuneration related to age and educational attainment. This wage is gradually increased until the time of retirement. However, the rate of remuneration does not increase uniquely in terms of years of service, but also reflects job performance and the ability of the individual worker. Recently, individual wages tend to be determined by the work done; however, age and years of service can still be seen to influence the wages of the individual worker to a great extent.

Both lifetime employment and the seniority wage system are founded on the expectation of a long-term relationship between an employer and a worker. The system implies that those with longer service tend to receive more training, to be ranked higher, and to earn more. Thus, women as a whole tend to receive less training, to be ranked lower, and to earn less because of their shorter years of service.

It should also be noted that education and training within the enterprise play an important role in human resources development, whereas the role of vocational training outside the enterprise tends to be relatively small. Moreover, as a result of the fact that job transfer between different occupational groups takes place quite often, and that university and school leavers tend to be concerned with the company rather than the job content when they seek their job, the attachment to occupations as a whole is rather weak except for some professional occupations.

## The Changing Attitude of Women Towards Employment

The consciousness of women about the desirable pattern of occupational life has been changing. As shown in Table 1, in 1972, the category "should hold job, then leave temporarily for marriage or childbirth, then return to job" recorded the largest proportion (39.5%), followed by "should hold job, then leave after marriage" (18.6%), "should hold job even after child is born" (12.3%), "should hold job even after marriage or childbirth" (11.5%). Since 1972, however, both categories "should hold job, then leave after marriage" and "should hold job, then leave after child is born" have been decreasing, whereas both "should hold job, then leave temporarily for marriage or childbirth, then return to job" and "should hold job even after marriage or childbirth" have increased. As a result, in 1984, the respective proportions of 1972 became 45.3%, 11.1%, 10.6% and 20.1% in that order.

Accordingly, the number of female employees who keep working throughout their life, as male workers do, is increasing, and therefore their years of service are also becoming longer. According to the Ministry of Labour, Basic Survey of Wage Structure, the service years of female employees, excluding part-timers, averaged 5.3 years in 1976, and increased to 6.5 years in 1984.

However, women's major fields of study at universities and junior colleges seem to have remained unchanged in recent years and still show substantial differences when compared to those of men. As indicated in Table 2, a large number of male students major in sciences and engineering, while most female students major in humanities, education, and social sciences.

As indicated above, women wishing to work without interruption are increasing rapidly. There are however many difficulties and obstacles to overcome. According to the Public Opinion Survey on Women conducted by the Prime Minister's Office, women indicated the following as major difficulties and obstacles for their long-term employment (multiple answer); child-rearing (indicated by 65% of women), care of the aged and the sick (35%), house work (32%), education of children (30%), personal health problems (30%), and transfer to remote places with her husband (17%).

Women indicated a need for the following assistance and measures for their re-entry into the labour market (multiple answer): improvement of the labour conditions of part-time workers (indicated by 43% of respondents), slackening of the age limit required in many job openings (42%), implementation of re-employment system to be employed by the previous employer (39%), more employment opportunities (33%), improvement in number and quality of childcare facilities (30%), and more training opportunities for the development of skills and knowledge (18%).

## Training at Public Vocational Training Centres

Two vocational training centres in the Tokyo area, Kame-edo Vocational Training Centre and Shinjuku Women's Vocational Training Centre, were reviewed. In Tokyo, there are 19 vocational training centres operated by the Tokyo Metropolitan Government, with a total capacity for training 9,225 persons. The primary task of these centres is to conduct public vocational training and to give assistance for authorised vocational training by enterprises. The Human Resources Development Division under the Department of Labour Economy, Tokyo Metropolitan Government, is in charge of a vocational training programme with 629 full-time staff (including instructors) and 296 part-time instructors.

One of the two major programmes of the Kame-edo Vocational Training Centre is to conduct public vocational training. The other is to assist enterprises in providing vocational training. The major task of the latter programme is to give various subsidies to enterprises and also to offer training facilities for their use. The centre is operated by a staff of 169, including 126 part-time instructors.

There are three training courses; ordinary courses, job conversion courses, and evening courses. The fields in which courses are shown in Table 3. The training period for the ordinary course is one year, while that for the job conversion course is six months. Evening courses are either one year or six months in length according to the field.

All fields are open to both sexes, and there are few age restrictions. One year courses start in April and end in March of the next year, while 6 month courses start in April and October. Trainees are selected through an aptitude test and interview. In addition, a written test in Japanese and mathematics is organised for the ordinary course. In interviewing, emphasis is placed on the desire to learn and on planning to make use of the skill to be trained.

Applications and enrolment in 1985 are shown in Table 3. The figures refer to both sexes, whereas figures in parentheses refer to women only. Although all fields were open to women, they tended to concentrate in fields such as architectural drawing, advertising arts, computer operation and programming, and accounting. No women, or only a few, applied for courses in other disciplines. These enrolment patterns have been repeated every year. Data since 1981, indicate that no woman applied for electrical engineering, welding or tiling, while only a few women applied intermittently for training in automobile maintenance and building equipment design.

The Human Resources Development Bureau of the Ministry of Labour, prescribes training standards for each field on the basis of which the public vocational training is carried out throughout Japan. Thus, the content of training at the Kame-edo Vocational Training Centre is based on the standards prepared by the Ministry of Labour. According to the standards, the ordinary training courses with a training period of one year require 1,600 class hours (one class hour includes fifty minutes) of training.

Job placement services are given to trainees at the centre in close cooperation with the Public Employment Security Office. Officials of the office interview trainees to collect information necessary for better placement. A part-time vocational training counsellor at the centre also provides vocational guidance, especially for middle-aged and older trainees, aiming at effective job placement.

The bulk of female graduates are placed in medium-sized and small enterprises. Starting salary does not vary much between the fields of study completed. In general, starting salary is set with relation to the level of an employee of similar age with similar educational background. Unlike in Western countries, the training experience at the centre does not contribute much to a clear increase in salary. The mechanisms of wage setting reflect the influence of the seniority wage rule discussed above.

The vocational training at the centre is given free of charge, with tools and materials leased or free. There are various other aid programmes such as the Japan National Railway student discount fare system, interest-free skill training loans, favourable treatment of unemployment benefits, and a training allowance scheme.

The Shinjuku Women's Vocational Training Centre is intended to achieve employment stability and status by fostering competent female workers through occupational capability redevelopment training. The training at the centre is targeted at middle-aged and older women wishing to enter the labour market with vocational skills. The centre is the only vocational training centre specifically for women in Tokyo, although of other centres provide courses for women only. The training fields available are: welfare help, cooking, office work, and building sanitary management. The training period is six months for all courses. The centre is operated by 55 staff members, including 36 part-time instructors.

The various arrangements for training at the centre, such as applications, examinations, job placement, and training standards, are quite similar to those at the Kame-edo Vocational Training Centre and are not described here.

## Human Resources Development Activity Within the Enterprise

The bank reviewed in this study is one of the major banks in Japan. It has about 250 branches in Japan and abroad employing 11,000 clerks. Female clerks number 4,000, their average age being 26 and average years of service 6.7 years. Male clerks however are on average 38.9 years of age and have 16.6 years of experience.

Most of the female clerks start working in the bank immediately after their graduation, and leave the bank because of marriage, child-birth, or child-rearing. The share of married women in female clerk positions is less than 10%. However, average length of service of women clerks has steadily been increasing from 4.8 years in 1977 to 6.7 years in 1986.

The human resources development programme includes three types of training; (1) training at the work place, (2) self-development, and (3) group training. All three are closely combined. Training at the workplace includes reception training, total quality control movement, study meetings, job manuals, etc. Self-development is promoted through education by correspondence, a knowledge evaluation system, and skill competition. Group training is held at various stages of the promotion ladder, from the time of hiring until retirement. It should be noted that there is no discrimination in training for women. Both sexes are treated equally in the programme.

It is also worth noting that the re-employment system, namely a new programme advantageous for women, was created to re-hire those who left the bank because of child-rearing, marriage and the like. Those women qualifying for re-employment are required to satisfy the following conditions; (1) to have left the bank because of marriage and/or child-birth, (2) to have been in service for three years or more, (3) to have performed her job on average or better, (4) to have had an employment status as a regular employee. The decision to re-employ women is based on both an interview and work accomplished on a part-time basis.

Various training programmes are also available in a large department store where about 17,000 persons are employed. They include group training, education-by-correspondence, and manager-level training which covers training and education for sales skills, merchandise control, credit system management, marketing, etc.

Training programmes are conducted on an equal basis for both sexes. Thus, women employees receive the same training as men at various stages of promotion as long as they are promoted in the same way as men. However, there are several factors which influence equal promotion. The first factor is the length of service of women. About half of the newly hired women leave after five years. As a result, the number of women who receive advanced training tends to be smaller than men, leading to fewer numbers of women at high levels of responsibility. The second factor is related to job assignment at the work place. Many managers at low or middle levels tend to have rigid attitudes regarding the role of women in the work place, such as "women in sales, men in administration". Therefore, female employees tend to opt for work in the area of sales, as cashiers and the like, while male employees are found predominantly in merchandise control, planning, etc. experience which is useful for becoming a manager.

It should also be noted that the personnel management system of the company operates on the principle of respect for others characterised by (1) no discrimination based on sex, educational attainment, or nationality, (2) emphasis on education which is programmed so as to make full use of individual ability, (3) a system to reflect individual desire for employment. The system has been changing over time. Looking at major changes related to women, periodic hiring of female university graduates started in 1970. In 1975, an arrangement was introduced in which an employee has management control of a sales corner of the department store with several assistants. More than half of the 236 sub-managers are now female. In 1979, a suggestion system called "Ladies'Board" was introduced and established in all stores. It was intended that the women themselves consider which work place and job best suited them. In 1980, a license system similar to the re-employment system of the major bank in the previous case, was introduced. In 1983, creches were introduced enabling women to work part time during the child-rearing period.

## Possible Methods for the Diversification of Women's Employment

In Japan, the Equal Employment Opportunity Act was put into enforcement in April 1986. This seems to have led to substantial changes in personnel management (recruitment, hiring, job assignment, promotion, etc.) at enterprise level. Although details of the changes are not yet known, it is expected that the act will gradually influence job opportunities for women and improve their status at the work place.

However, it is also true to say that a diversification of women's employment cannot be solved simply by the enforcement of such a law. There are several conditions required for a fundamental solution to the problem. The first condition is related to labour supply namely women. Changes in women's participation in education should be promoted. As seen above, female students still concentrate in the fields of literature, home economics, the arts, etc. which place them at a disadvantage in the labour market. An increase in engineering, science, social science, etc. should be encouraged.

In addition, changes in women's attitudes towards employment should also be modified. Many women still do not want a career. There are also many women who change their minds at the time of childbirth or marriage, even though they may have envisaged a long term career at the time of securing initial employment. Women's shorter years of service have served to discourage employers from giving them more opportunities for training and education and from promoting them to higher positions. Thus, active involvement of women in their jobs would serve to change employers' attitudes in a positive manner.

The second condition for diversifying women's employment is related to labour demand, namely the employers. Employers should respond to the changing situation of women in regard to personnel management.

Today, women's attitudes towards jobs have been changing, and employers should prepare career development programmes for women wishing long-term employment so that their occupational capacity can be fully utilised. Even for those wishing short-term employment or part-time employment, an effort to improve the personnel management system should be made. Part-time employment up to present has tended to concentrate on low skill and low paid jobs. In the future, however, part-time employment should also play an important role in high skilled and high paid jobs.

The third condition is related to the improvement of the environment conditions of women workers. In particular, change in the consciousness of both men and women about the role of women should be promoted. In order to attain diversification of women's education, it is necessary to focus on boys and girls from childhood, and change their ideas about the traditional roles of men and women in society. These actions would also be effective in reducing occupational segregation in the labour market. The change in consciousness about the role of women, might also improve the unequal distribution of home responsibilities. In addition, as described in the case of the department store, informal discrimination in the workplace must be reduced. In Japan,shortening working hours is another important condition for diversification due to the fact that long working hours and/or leisure time necessarily spent with colleagues after work tend to operate against women. A reduction in working hours would certainly contribute to promoting the diversification of women's employment.

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References:

OCED, The Development of Industrial Relations System, 1977

Ran, S., "Japanese Employment Practices and Segregation of Women in the Enterprise, World Labour" (Sekai no Rodo), Japan ILO Association, March 1985 (in Japanese).

## Table 1
## Women in Employment

(persons, %)

| | 1972 | 1979 | 1982 | 1984 | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Women | Women | Women | Women | Men |
| Number of respondents | 16,645 | 8,103 | 1,294 | 4,431 | 3,600 |
| Should hold job even after marriage or childbirth | 11.5 | 20.1 | 18.0 | 20.1 | 15.7 |
| Should hold job, then leave temporarily for marriage or childbirth, then return to job | 39.5 | 39.2 | 43.5 | 45.3 | 36.1 |
| Should hold job, then leave after marriage | 18.6 | 11.3 | 14.2 | 11.1 | 16.4 |
| Should hold job, then leave after child is born | 12.3 | 10.8 | 11.7 | 10.6 | 13.4 |
| Should not hold job | 7.8 | 7.0 | 6.9 | 6.1 | 9.8 |
| Don't know | 10.3 | 11.6 | 5.7 | 6.9 | 8.6 |

Source: Prime Minister's Officer - "Public Opinion Survey on Women"

Note: Women 20 years of age and above were surveyed using a random sampling method.

## Table 2
## Distribution of Majors in University and Junior College

| Majors | University | | | Junior College | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Female | | Male | Female | Male |
| | 1975 | 1984 | 1984 | 1984 | 1984 |
| Humanities | 36.2 | 35.5 | 7.7 | 24.3 | 4.4 |
| Social Sciences | 15.0 | 14.7 | 46.4 | 7.4 | 29.0 |
| Liberal Arts | | | | 2.4 | 0.5 |
| Science | 2.0 | 2.6 | 3.7 | | |
| Engineering | 0.8 | 2.1 | 24.9 | 0.9 | 45.9 |
| Argculture | 1.5 | 2.1 | 3.9 | 0.2 | 8.7 |
| Health | 8.4 | 9.4 | 5.9 | 5.1 | 6.1 |
| Home Economics | 8.1 | 7.8 | - | 29.7 | 0.3 |
| Education | 19.6 | 17.1 | 4.9 | 24.0 | 1.7 |
| Arts | 6.4 | 7.1 | 1.2 | 5.3 | 3.3 |
| Others | 2.0 | 1.5 | 1.2 | 0.6 | |
| Total | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 | 100.0 |
| Number of students (thousand) | 356 | 406 | 1329 | 338 | 38 |

Source: Ministry of Education - "School Basic Statistics, 1984"

### Table 3
### Enrolment at
### Kame-edo Vocational Training Centre (1985)

(in persons)

| Subject | Capacity | Application | Enrolment | Completed |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Ordinary Course | | | | |
| Electric engineering | 30 | 39 | 25 | 20 |
| Automobile maintenance | 30 | 82 | 27 | 22 |
| Building equipment design | 30 | 20 | 19 | 16 |
| Architectural drawing | 40 | 59 (14) | 33 (7) | 14 (3) |
| Advertising arts | 30 | 84 (43) | 30 (16) | 25 (11) |
| Computer operation and programming | 60 | 100 (43) | 57 (28) | 40 (18) |
| Job Conversion Course | | | | |
| Welding | 45 | 46 | 33 | 28 |
| Tiling | 60 | 26 | 24 | 20 |
| Accounting | 60 | 100 (86) | 57 (50) | 50 (45) |
| Accounting (45 years and over) | 60 | 116 (81) | 58 (51) | 52 (47) |
| Building equipment maintenance | 60 | 193 | 56 | 52 |
| Evening Course | | | | |
| Electric engineering | 30 | 27 | 20 | 16 |
| Building equipment design | 60 | 34 (1) | 33 (1) | 23 |
| Architectural drawing | 60 | 48 (16) | 39 (12) | 26 (8) |
| Advertising arts | 30 | 37 (15) | 29 (13) | 22 (11) |
| Computer operation and programming | 60 | 96 (33) | 61 (20) | 51 (18) |
| Total | 745 | 1.107 (338) | 596 (198) | 477 (161) |

Note: Figures refer to both sexes. However, figures in the parentheses refer to women.

# SUMMARY CASE STUDY
# KOREA

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## RESEARCH METHODS

The ten cases selected for this study have different goals, sponsoring institutions and target groups, and yet they are organically related to each other in a broader socio-economic context.

The training programmes for papering, engineering drawing, and jewellery craft sponsored by the YWCA, provided single and married women with employment opportunities in traditionally male-dominant fields. The vocational training programme for women welders by company A trained women who had been previously employed as janitors to provide them with better employment opportunities. The training machinery for rural women by the rural development administration improved the status of women employed in agriculture by training them to use improved agricultural technology.

Company B employed female college graduates to utilise this high quality women's labour force, and company C provided opportunities for re-entry into the labour market by married women who had had previous experience in professional occupations.

The "Training for Women's Social Participation and Women's Leadership" programme was provided by the KWDI for those women who are or will be employed in professional, technical, administrative, or managerial occupations with the purpose of raising the consciousness of those in positions of leadership, and instilling self-motivation and sound professionalism among new participants in the labour market.

Finally, the programme for family daycare mothers was developed to provide a new kind of professional occupation for women and also to provide a social support system for employed mothers.

To conduct the study surveys were conducted from September 30 to October 18, 1986 by six interviewers. An organisation survey was conducted with each sponsoring institution, and individual surveys were conducted through personal interviews or mailed questionnaires.

Other sources of information included self-evaluations provided by the respective institutions, surveys conducted among participants, institutional plans for training and employment, newspaper articles, and textbooks.

Individual surveys were conducted with ten participants from each of the programmes. For the participants in the training for women's social participation and women's leadership, mailed questionnaires were used. In the case of the training for women's social participation, there were few responses to the questionnaires, and it was necessary to conduct individual interviews. In the case of women's leadership, individual interviews were not feasible because the participants were distributed all over the nation, and analysis relied on answers to the questionnaires. In the case of jewellery craft, only two (one employed, one self-employed) out of the 70 participants were interviewed. Interviews on the training for agricultural machinery were conducted among the residents of village K in the suburbs of Seoul.

Individual surveys were conducted with 87 women, among whom 70 were residents of Seoul and nearby suburbs. Table I and Table II show the results of the organisation and individual surveys conducted for the case studies.

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# CONCLUSIONS

## The Structural Context of the Case Studies

Through analysis of successful cases in diversifying women's training and employment, it is possible to devise strategies and make recommendations for improving the present situation of women in the labour force in Korea.

. The training for papering, sponsored by the YWCA, and for welding, by company A are examples of technical training for married women from the low income strata in urban areas. Married women from the urban low income strata tend to contribute heavily to family income, but most of them are employed in simple manual labour in the informal sector, and as such are subject to low wages and unfavourable working conditions. The two programmes were path-breaking initiatives for those underprivileged women, and the case of papering should be specially commended as it was sponsored by a private women's organisation.

. Agriculture forms the basic economic activity of Korea and engages about 5 million people, but it was largely neglected, consciously or unconsciously, in the national economic development plans of the 60's and 70's. The training programme on agricultural machinery for rural women is an example of training to rationalise rural labour forces and improve their consciousness. Large-scale governmental support was provided in a field which is not easily accessible to private women's organisations or enterprises. For this kind of large-scale training to be effective, parallel efforts must be made to develop the kind of machinery suited to Korean rural situations. Since machinery should be operated only by those with authorised licenses, continued training is required for women to have a thorough understanding of operation skills.

. Many single female high school graduates find employment in the limited field of office work, sales, and services. They are however subject to the practice of "retirement-after-marriage". In this respect, the training programme for engineering drawing is significant as it provides skills that could be utilised long after marriage. Technical training for single female high school graduates in urban areas, as in this example, requires more support and attention from relevant institutions. It will contribute to forming a middle-ground between the simple skilled labour force of junior high school graduates or below and the high quality labour force of college graduates in professional and managerial occupations, thereby narrowing the income gap between different levels of education.

. Most professional and technical occupations are dominated by men, and the high unemployment rate of women with educational qualifications reduces the effectiveness of educational investment within the society. In this context, the employment programmes for professional women organised by two leading Korean enterprises are very significant. The two companies recognised the fact that women could have equal abilities with men, and decided that it would be profitable to hire highly qualified female college graduates.

On the other hand, a programme for the re-entry of married women into the labour market was only considered by another leading company because it replaced high wage male labour with low wage and high-quality female labour. If this kind of programme is to be effective and meaningful, married women must be entitled to equal pay, and more objective standards in the evaluation of work performance should be applied so that women will not be discriminated against in promotion.

It is too early to evaluate the above-mentioned programmes, but the cases indicate Korean women have begun to advance into professional and technical occupations as a result of wide-spread education equality.

Although women's employment has been gradually on the increase in both quality and quantitative terms, those employed in traditionally male-dominant fields, sometimes, encounter problems of adjusting to their work contexts.

. Employed women should demonstrate a strong professionalism in their respective fields to provide good precedents, and training programmes to raise the consciousness of women would be useful for this purpose, Consciousness-raising programmes for women who are about to enter the labour market and for those already employed, sponsored by the KWDI in the form of training for women's social participation and women's leadership, are aimed at college graduates who are or will be employed in professional, technical, administrative, and managerial occupations.

The programmes need to be expanded to accommodate a wide variety of women's organisations and groups, to instill professionalism and raise consciousness of women's issues among employed women.

. Finally, the training in jewellery craft provided by the YWCA and the training of family daycare mothers organised by the KWDI are examples of technical training programmes to utilise the economically inactive labour force of married women. In the past, married women had to stay home despite their willingness and desire to work, due to social attitudes or the lack of domestic help. The programme clearly shows that self-employed married women can contribute to social and economic development in such fields as jewellery craft.[1]

In addition, the introduction of family daycare mothers serves as a social support system for employed mothers and also as a new kind of occupation for unemployed married women.

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[1] In 1980, 55.5% of the urban female population consisted of married women with spouses. The rate of participation in economic activities for urban married women over age 14 was 23.6% in 1983. The rate was especially low for highly educated women. In 1980, 57.5% of female college graduates were house-wives.

## RECOMMENDATIONS

The case studies attest to the possibility of expanding women's equal participation in economic activities despite the wide-spread sexual prejudices in society. However, when the unequal structure of the whole society is considered, the cases seem to have had a minimal effect in improving the status of women.

The economic development of Korea since the 1960s has depended largely upon the women's labour force: the low-wage single female labour force in urban production areas, and the married women's labour force replacing the men's in rural areas. Although women's participation in economic activities has increased since 1960,[2] the majority of women are employed in agriculture (low-wage production), and sales jobs. Women workers have been characterised as having unstable employment histories, low level of education, young age profiles, low wages, and being concentrated in the informal sector.

In order to eliminate such inequality in the employment structure and to diversify women's employment and training, it is necessary to identify discriminatory practices within and external to the labour market, and seek ways to improve the situation. It is also necessary to strengthen women's education and training in order that they may enjoy career advancement and a wider range of employment opportunities.

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[2] In 1985, 5,969,000 Korean women participated in economic activities, which accounted for 38.5% of the total population engaged in economic activities. The rate for participation in economic activities was 40.6%, which has been on the increase.

In this respect, the following recommendations may be made:

### 1. Elimination of discrimination against women in education and training in order to develop women's full capacity to contribute to the development of their nation

### . Equal Education Opportunities

Many junior high schools separate home economics for girls and technology for boys, which tends to contribute to the maintenance of traditional sexual stereotypes. It is recommended that these subjects be integrated into one course of study. It is further recommended that girls and boys not be segregated, but be mixed in co-ed schools and receive the same education.

Textbooks need to be revised to eliminate discriminatory contents. It is necessary to include females as historical figures and illustrations to provide role models for girls.

In career guidance, teachers in higher education should encourage girl students to major in science and technology which have been traditionally considered as boys' fields.

### . Vocational Training for Women

It is recommended that a "Public Vocational Training Centre for Women" be established to promote women's participation in such unconventional fields as machine drafting, electronics, home decoration, industrial design, wood craft, and high-technology.

It is necessary to analyse the reasons behind the lack of women's participation in the established public vocational training centres. Women should be given incentives such as scholarships to participate in such training.

. **Social Education for Women**

Even after formal education and training, women need new knowledge and information as society is changing rapidly. However, so far, only a limited number of women from the urban middle class have benefited from social education. It is recommended that a social education programme be expanded to benefit the urban poor and rural women utilising established facilities of schools and women's centres. The maximum utilisation of mass media and public libraries for this purpose is recommended.

## 2. Elimination of discrimination against women in the labour market for the rational utilisation of women as a significant human resource

. **Equal Employment Opportunities**

The first step to maximise the utitilisation of women's resources is to realise equal employment opportunities by eliminating discriminatory practices in employment, promotion, and retirement.

It is recommended that a "Committee on the Implementation of the Equal Rights for Men and Women" be established as a governmental subsidiary to investigate discriminatory practices and make recommendations. The committee will be responsible for preventing such discriminatory practices as early retirement, retirement-with-marriage, and sexual discrimination in promotion and transfer.

. **Improvement of Working Conditions for Women**

The percentage of women workers in low wage occupations is high. Therefore it is necessary to introduce a minimum wage system to protect women workers, and to expand the beneficiaries of the Labour Standard Law to include employees of enterprises that have as few as five employees (the present system is limited to ten employees or more).

Institutionalised support measures for employed mothers, such as pre- and post-natal leave, time-off for nursing, childcare centres at work places, and the prohibition of night work, should be encouraged. In addition, the Committee should see to it that such provisions do not provide excuses for discrimination against women in employment. It is also recommended that temporary leave for childcare be institutionalised. Part-time jobs for unemployed married women should be developed, and the Labour Standard Act, workmen's accident compensation insurance, and medical care should be reconsidered to provide legal protection for them.

### 3. Social Support Systems for the Diversification of Women's Employment and Training

#### . Expansion of Childcare Centres

The social support systems for the effective improvement of employment, education, and training of women should take into consideration such factors as pregnancy, delivery, subsequent childcare, and family duties.

The demand for married women in the labour market has been an increasing market, while there has been a shortage of supply of young women because the rate of school attendance has increased. As a result, the demand for childcare centres has also increased, with supply remaining far below demand.

It is recommended that established facilities be improved and expanded, and active support be given to the newly-introduced family daycare system. Daycare centres in the workplace should be established in major industrial and agricultural areas where women workers are mostly concentrated.

#### . Establishment of Employment Imformation Networks

It is recommended that a "National Information Network" be established with the cooperation of women's organisations and various education and training institutions, to provide information on employment and assist in locating jobs for women.

### . Promotion of Professional Counselling Services

It is recommended that established counselling services be expanded to provide professional counselling for employed women who encounter difficulties in a male-dominated working environment.

### . Expansion of Welfare Benefits

The Labour Standard Law applies only to those workers employed in the formal sector. Therefore, 75% of women workers are not entitled to benefits under the law because they are employed in the informal sector. These women are self-employed, unpaid family workers in the urban areas, or agricultural workers in the rural areas. It is recommended that the welfare system be expanded to benefit these large categories of women workers.

## Strategies to Eliminate Discrimination against Women

### . Increase Women's Participation in Policy Making

The maximum utilisation of women's resources in Korea requires active support at the governmental level. It is recommended that more women should participate in the decision- making process of the government as politicians, bureaucrats, assembly members, and representatives of local government.

### . Social Support for Research and Study on Women

Support for research and study on issues concerning women, carried out by private and public research institutes and universities should be sponsored by the government, private companies, and women's organisations.

### . Promotion of Women's Movements

The role of autonomous women's groups is pivotal in improving the status of women. Women's movements such as labour movements, consumers' movements, and others concerned with political, educational, and environmental issues should be promoted. Close cooperation among women's organisations is essential in solving women's problems through effective group action.

TABLE I ORGANIZATION SURVEY

| Training Programme | Sponsoring Institution | Interviewed Information | Participants | Source of Information |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Papering | YWCA Women's Centre | President of Women's Centre Personnel in charge of the programme | 2 | The list of Training participants |
| 2. Welding | Company A | Personnel in charge of company vocational training | 2 | "Training plan"<br>"Report on Vocational Training"<br>Newspapers |
| 3. Agricultural Machinery for Rural Women | Rural Development Administration/ Rural Guidance Centres | Division for life improvement, Division for training farmers, Rural Guidance Centre in K Village | 3 | Survey analysis of the participants (DRD), Training plan : agricultural machinery for rural women (DRD), Textbook for the training |
| 4. Engineering Drawing | YWCA Women's Centre | President of Women's Centre, Personnel in charge of the programme | 2 | The list of training participants |
| 5. Employment of female college Graduates | Company B | The Division on Planning and Coordination | 2 | "Group Train-Planning and Company Newspapers, Interview with the President of Company, Open Dialogue between the President and the employee |
| 6. Re-entry of Married Women into the Labour Market | Company C | Personnel officer, Secretary of the President | 1 | Training Plan (C Company) |
| 7. Women's Social Participation | The Resource Development Division of KWDI | Resource Development Division | 1 | "Report on the training for women's social participation" (KWDI)<br>"Recommendation on women participation" |
| 8. Women's Leadership | The Education & Training Division of KWDI | Education & Training Division | 1 | "Report of Women's Leadership" (KWDI) |
| 9. Jewelry Work | YWCA Women's Centre | President of Women's Centre, Personnel in charge of the programme | 2 | |
| 10. Family Day-Care Mothers | The Education & Training Division of KWDI | Education & Training Division | 1 | "Report on Model Training for Family Day-care Mothers" (KWDI) |

TABLE II INDIVIDUAL SURVEY

| Cases | # Participants | #Expected to be Interviewed | # Interviewed | Survey Methods | Residential Area | Sampling Method |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1 | 220 | 10 | 9 | Interview | Seoul | Random, recommended by the institution |
| 2 | 126 | 10 | 9 | " | Pusan | " |
| 3 | 106,894 | 10 | 10 | " | Rural area nearby Seoul | " |
| 4 | 20 | 10 | 10 | " | Seoul | " |
| 5 | 196 | 10 | 10 | " | " | " |
| 6 | 81 | 10 | 10 | " | " | " |
| 7 | 90 | 10 | 10 | interview/ mailing questionnaire | " | 10 employees among the participants |
| 8 | 97 | 25 | 7 | mailing questionnaire | All over the nation | Random according to regional distribution |
| 9 | 70 | 2 employees | 2 | interview | Seoul & nearby Surburbs | 2 employees |
| 10 | 97 | 10 | 10 | " | " | Random, recommended by the institution |

Measures for Improvement of Diversification of Employment and Training

| Areas to be improved | Goal | Improvement Principles | Measures |
|---|---|---|---|
| Education and Training | Active Development of Women's Capacity | i. Equal Education Opportunities<br>ii. Vocational Training for Women<br>iii. Expansion of Social Education | - Integration of Home Economics and technology<br>- Revision textbooks to eliminate discriminatory contents<br>- Finding historical role models for girls<br>- Encouraging girls to major in nonconventional<br>- fields<br>- Establishing of Public Vocational Training Centre for Women in non-conventional fields<br>- Strengthening vocational training for women by established centres<br>- Utilising established education facilities and expand the target groups<br>- Strengthening the social education function of mass media and public libraries |
| Employment | Rational Utilisation of Women's Resources | i. Equal Employment Opportunities<br>ii. Improvement of Working Conditions for Working Women | - Establishing committee on the implementation of the equal rights of men and wome<br>- Eliminating discriminatory practices<br>- Introducing a minimum wage system<br>- Expanding beneficiaries of the Labour Standard Law<br>- Encouraging the institutionalisation of Labour Standard Law<br>- Supervising the implementation of the Labour Standard Law<br>- Diversifying employment through the development of part-time jobs and provide legal protection for them |

**Social Support Systems**

- -Expansion of child care institutions
- -Establishment of employment information networks
- -Promotion of professional counselling services
- -Expansion of social welfare benefits

**Strategies to eliminate discrimination**

- -Increase Women's Participation in policy making
- -Support for research and study on women
- -Promotion of women's movements

# SUMMARY CASE STUDY
# NORTHERN REGION OF PENINSULAR MALAYSIA

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## Introduction

The Northern Region of Peninsular Malaysia covers the states of Kedah, Penang, and Perak. Perak is occasionally excluded in national statistics pertaining to the northern region, possibly because of its location in the mid-central portion of the western coast of the peninsula. Data and statistics on this state will be provided whenever available, but in view of these inconsistencies, the choices and selection of agencies and organisations relating to women's training and employment have been mainly restricted to the states of Penang, Kedah, and Perlis.

The Case Study Report of the Northern Region of the Peninsula attempts to elucidate the diversity of factors which may directly or indirectly contribute to women's effective or ineffective participation in the labour market - socio-structural and cultural factors, economics, educational and labour policies, corporate and organisational behaviour, law and legislation processes, etc. The paper suggests that against the total constellation of factors, different kinds of issues and problems are likely to arise in women's advancement in employment and training. Thus, any policy or action programmes which attempt to improve women's capacity to control their own labour resources, i.e. generate skills that allow for both self-sufficiency and productivity, should review not only formal and informal spheres of labour relations but short and long term perspectives of labour utilisation within the country and region.

## Case Studies of Organisations & Institutions Concerned with Women's Training & Employment

Ten organisations have been selected for this study:

- INTAN (The National Institute of Public Administration) Malaysia, Northern Territory, Kedah.
- Kud/Kutu (the Institution of Rotary Credit) Seberang Perai.
- Green Lane Convent Secondary School, Penang.
- Penang Chinese Girls High School, Penang.
- Industrial Training Institute, Northern Division, Perai.
- Akojaya Sendirion, Butterworth.
- MADA or The Malaysian Agricultural Development Authority, Kedah and Perlis.
- School of Management, University Sains Malaysia, Penang.
- Motorola, Penang.
- Institute Kemahiran MARA (MARA Institute of Specialisation)

These organisations and institutions have been selected to cover a diversity of programmes concerned with training men and women, or women alone, at various levels in both the public and private sectors. They are also, directly or indirectly, concerned with employment through upgrading existing occupational skills and providing alternative venues for diversifying skills and employment, thereby improving job prospects and mobility. These institutions are also concerned with developing training and employment in a 'non-traditional' direction, in the sense that both the type of training provided and the context or scale of operations differ significantly from those which have usually been associated with or provided for women in Malaysian society.

**INTAN**
**Institute Tadbiran Awam Negara**
**(National Institute of Public Administration, Malaysia)**
**Kampus Wilayah Utara**
**Sungei Petani, Kedah**

The Northern Branch of INTAN began operations in April 1983, and is directly concerned with the training of government employees at all levels in the public and para-governmental sectors within the Northern Region (covering the states of Kedah, Perlis, Penang and Perak) of the Peninsula. It is the training arm of the Public Services Department, which is the central personnel agency of the Federal Government of Malaysia.

INTAN provides expertise and assistance in training functions as well as coordinated departmental training efforts. The services rendered are aimed at increasing the efficiency of the national administrative system to develop and implement national policies and programmes. It is also expected that through INTAN, civil servants can improve their special skills, knowledge, and understanding in implementing public policies and programmes, particularly in the application of modern techniques in organisation and management. INTAN also hopes to promote among civil servants a deeper understanding of the inter-relationship between the government and the political and socio-economic environment, while developing amongst them more progressive leadership skills which can improve the efficiency of the public sector.

The Northern Territory Division has a staff strength of 94, comprised of 35 males and 59 females. The institute has only one female officer in charge of the domestic department which handles the accommodation and provision of food for course participants.

There is no specific enrolment policy for women, and enrolment into courses is based on the work in which they are currently involved in. At present, 75 percent of the courses offered cater to the supervisory and clerical levels where there is a large percentage of female participants. In certain courses, like secretarial work, all participants are women. The trainers at INTAN believe that all courses offered by the institute are suitable for both sexes, but more women tend to be recruited into clerical and secretarial work than into the civil service. Feedback about the usefulness and effectiveness of the training programme is obtained at the end of the course through an evaluation form.

The total number of participants trained in 1985 has been 7,341, of which 30% were women. Within this group, less than 10% of the women were graduates in the civil service, the majority (90%) being women employees in the clerical or secretarial sector. Two sets of questionaires were administered to five male officers and the single woman officer in the institute. Generally, the recipients agreed that women were suitable for all types of training programmes conducted by INTAN. However, women lacked the paper qualifications (degrees) to take on courses offered to civil servants in the higher levels of administration. Comparing male/female productivity levels within similar occupations in the civil service, there was general consensus that women performed as well as men. However, women's perceptions of their performance levels were higher than male perceptions. For example, male officers felt that women should be exempted from the hard vigorous exercise conducted before formal training commenced whereas the women felt that they could cope well, unless of course they were pregnant. The female officer dealing with training of personnel in domestic management and catering reported that she had more problems with the male than female staff.

All officers agreed that the programme would improve with greater female participation, there would be a keener sense of competition amongst the participants, group discussions and workshops would be more lively, and achievement motivation levels might increase. It was also felt that female officers who underwent training might display more qualities of leadership in terms of organising and leading discussions, talks, and field trips. Currently, they were over shadowed by the men, who on account of numbers naturally assumed leadership of the group.

**The Kud/Kutu System of Rotary Credit**
**Simpang Ampat**
**Seberrang Perai, Penang**

The kud or kutu operates around a group of women who pool their money monthly, enabling a contributor to withdraw the total sum every month for a specific purpose, either business or general consumerism. Groups generally amount to less than fifteen contributors. These are usually comprised of kinsmen, neighbours, friends, or colleagues of a common office or department. Members are usually on personal terms with other kud members, and have been encouraged or persuaded to participate in the scheme because of primary ties or regular secondary relationships with other members. In Chinese communitities, this system extends to a larger group, and often members are not known to one another. In such instances, default by contributors or managers of such schemes (amounting to criminal breach of trust) cannot be effectively checked. Such tontines have been made illegal, but the smaller kud variety continues to operate and flourish amongst villagers and townsmen, particularly within the Malay community. This study will be described in relation to a particular kud scheme organised by a group of Malay women in Simpang Ampat, Seberang Perai. The group involved nine women originating from the same village or neighbouring township, Kulim. All nine women were interviewed separately within the confinements of their homes. None of the women involved their husbands in the scheme or borrowed money from them for their monthly contributions.

Of the nine women interviewed in the system, two indicated that they used the money for expanding their businesses (food catering and catering for ritual gift trays used at weddings, which involved the buying of crockery, cromium-plated trays, tray cloths, and decorative dishes). Thus, these items compromised a capital investment in a small business which was already established. Occasionally, items would be purchased in advance on credit, and the money obtained from kud would then be used to repay the loans. Four other women said that they bought gold jewellery with their kud money. Amongst Malays, high prestige is attached to the purchase of gold jewellery, and although these purchases are often made in installments prior to the draw, money received from the kud may be used to clear these installments and to buy other additional items of jewellery. The three remaining women said that they used their kud money to refurnish their homes (change of cushion covers, curtains etc.) and also to purchase certain 'special things' which they had always wanted but could not afford (hand printed batik sarongs, crockery sets, carpets, etc.,). Generally, these patterns of expenditure suggest that money from kud is treated like savings. The money is used for items regarded as important sources of economic or social investment in the community.

In relation to work and employment, these women, who were for the most part middle-aged or elderly (40-50 years), unanimously expressed a desire to be economically independent and self-employed; hence the emphasis on small businesses, independent sources of savings, and decision-making on financial matters. This striving towards economic independence is reflective of modes of family and kinship organisation in the Malay community.

It may be meaningful to review the existing scheme in relation to the social climate of savings, investment, or small business operations amongst women in the traditional milieu. Socio-cultural factors seem to encourage the values of economic independence and decision-making amongst women, though modes of operations are still individualised and pertain mainly to personal or family needs. Certain occupational groups like the Chinese fishing community have used the system of rotatory credit to purchase larger items of capital investment like boats and fishing gear which are then owned corporately. The conversion of a kud group to a cooperative business group concerned with the production of commercially valuable items or services could be explored further. Women who initiate such kud groups are usually already involved in some business enterprise, and have acquired the basic managerial skills, trust, and social acceptability to assume a more dominant leadership role. With formal training, both young and older women could be systematically coopted into such schemes.

**Green Lane Convent (Secondary)**
**Green Lane, Penang**

Green Lane Convent, Penang is a non-residential metropolitan school founded in 1962 as a missionary school. The school has traditionally enjoyed a high status in achieving standards of academic excellence, combined and integrated with spiritual and moral education. It now function as a government school in the sense that the government provides the basic costs of maintenance. However, since the land and buildings belong to the Catholic congregation, the congregation has a say in the administration of the school. The school's Board of Governors includes ten female (71.4%) and four male representatives (28.5%). In comparison, the school had a teaching staff of 54 in 1986, out of which 85% were women and 15% men. This emphasis on women teachers has been traditional in convent schools and the attempt to recruit male teachers is seen to be a progressive development of school policy.

All respondents reported that they do not experience any obstacles in coping with academic work, finance, transport, etc. They also see their relationships with their teachers as positive or constructive, and receive supportive help from their parents, friends, and schoolmates. However, though teachers are believed to provide good 'role-models', students prefer to go to friends for counselling. As two of them remarked, friends and peers are easier to relate to than members of the older generation (including parents and teachers).

Significantly, they also confide that it is intense inter-personal communication and competition amongst peer groups which actually influences their future choice of careers. Significantly, all expect to carve a niche for themselves in fields related to business or management. The majority said they wanted to prove their personal capacities in running a big corporation or conducting a business of their own. Some want to have their own legal practices. Upon further probing, it was quite obvious that the majority of them were aware of the demands and responsibilities attached to these high-level positions.

In contrast, women teachers conveyed traditional stereotyped views of women's careers, i.e. women being most suited for the teaching profession. They felt that women were more sensitive to student needs than men. Furthermore, the working environment and shorter formal working hours enabled them to spend more time with the family. No extensive travelling was required except to go to the school and back. The teachers also believed that in teaching and training, men were more suitably placed in courses like physical education or jobs that required on-the-spot or immediate decisions. They also held the view that women teachers were more committed and diligent in their work compared to male teachers, and that this was reflected in their general attitude towards teaching, assigning home work, and involvement in extra-curricular activities.

It seems that aspirational levels of young girls are shaped within the school environment, where factors like peer group association and parental guidance are crucial in influencing choice of careers or professions. Income levels and class position are other important determinants for, in this school where the majority of girls come from middle class families, little assistance is needed from them to help with household chores. In the event of a mother holding a salaried position, house-help seems to be readily available. Parents seem to influence high achievement motivations in these young girls with the care they take to relieve them from domestic chores as much as possible. In such a context, positive role modelling from teachers is considerably undermined. Obviously, the women teachers' presentation of 'teaching' as an ideal-type career for women has not been taken seriously by students who prefer more dynamic challenging careers related to corporate enterprises and business, probably in direct response to the high achievement levels of their parents. Inter-personal competition and rivalry also act as an added stimulus to high achievement/ motivation.

**Penang Chinese Girls High School**
**Bagan Jermal, Penang**

The Penang Chinese Girls High School was founded in 1920. All of its students are Chinese. It receives financial assistance from the Ministry of Education for daily administrative expenses and payment of staff salaries. It also enjoys a considerable amount of autonomy in its administration, which is not always extended to public (government established) schools. The school's Board of Directors appoints the headmistress of the school. An agreement with the Ministry of Education allows it to receive its students from its own "feeder" primary school, with the normal school curriculum approved by the ministry, students in the lower secondary level can either opt for commerce or home science. Certain important conclusions can be drawn from the two case studies of education and training in secondary schools:

> When women teachers are positive role models for students, they tend to perpetuate their own professions as ideal type careers for women. This is also reinforced by positive guidance from parents (in the case of the Chinese community, fathers more than mothers) on choice of careers.
>
> Influence of teachers as role models is affected when teachers "ideal type" choices of "suitable careers for women" are in dissonance with parental choices. Here, students tend to be directly influenced by parental role modelling and peer group competition. Thus, professional parents or parents with successful careers tend to project their aspirations upon their children (sons and daughters) who in turn become high achievers, competing vigorously in schools and framing their choice of career by relating to non-traditional professions in corporate management and business. This is clearly a class phenomenon. The two schools recruit predominately Chinese students, yet girls in the Chinese High School opt for safe, stable more traditional type professions (namely teaching) probably in direct response to

their families less stable economic situation (wage-earners, non-professional, or entrepreneurs in small scale business) and the stronger patriarchal figure of the traditional Chinese father.

Despite the official structuring of lower secondary curriculum into home science and commerce, both schools tend to underemphasise home science, producing higher enrolments in commerce. It may be important here to review the curriculum of the lower secondary training structure where courses are structured according to gender (home science for girls, industrial science for boys, etc.). In these urban schools, home science training is certainly the lowest priority amongst girls. The situation is obviously different in other urban and rural schools where low grades prevent many students from qualifying for commerce. The majority end up doing home science or agriculture. This is particularly true in rural schools which may not even offer commerce as an alternative to home science or agriculture, and where industrial science is reserved only for boys. In this case, even if the "less successful" students are forced to take up home science, the training programmes should be more oriented towards catering and management so that a more integrative science/creative arts/social science curriculum could be devised. In this way, the status of this course could be upgraded and the hierarchical distinctions of area of specialisation in secondary schools could be reduced within urban areas and between rural and urban areas. Students who eventually move on to the arts stream might then be better trained in commerce where subjects like accounting, economics, psychology, design and decor can form the basis of career development for the future.

### Industrial Training Institute
### Seberang Perai, Penang

The Industrial Training Institute in Perai was set up in March 1973. It is directly administered by the Training Division of the

Manpower Department in the Ministry of Labour. The courses offered by the institute are targeted at selected groups in the labour market with different sets of objectives.

While the institute does not have a woman instructor on its staff, it has systematically increased its male instructors as part of its expansion programme to cater to the increasing number of trainees over the years. Potential trainees submit their applications through the Training Division of the Ministry of Labour which is responsible for the final selection of trainees in the institute. Between the years 1980 and 1986, the number of trainees has more than doubled (from 388 to 823) although they are almost exclusively male. The maximum number of women undergoing training for any particular year is four. In 1986, the institute received a single women trainee. Thus, the number of women undergoing training at the institute has been consistent and it is difficult to envisage any trend towards increasing the number of women trainees under the present circumstances. The head of the institute and five other instructors were interviewed, and many reasons were offered for the dismal participation of women in the training programme:

. The courses were designed for men or alternatively were less suitable for women, particularly those requiring great physical effort and endurance like welding, mechanical, and automative training. The courses that were thought to be suitable for women were radio and television repairing, printing, machining (production and assembling of machine parts and components), and electrical trades. Instructors indicated that these courses were in fact offered in the Industrial Training Institute in Kuala Lumpur, and that the response from women was encouraging. However, it was felt that men were more suitable for all types of training programmes, including the latter set of trades which were identified as suitable for women.

. The selection of trainees is conducted by the Training Division in the Ministry of Labour. It is not known whether women are rejected when they apply because the selection board finds them to be unsuitable candidates, or whether they attempt to apply at all for those courses which are traditionally 'male-oriented'. Instructors felt that the latter was probably true, and that women themselves were adverse to training of this kind.

- More information and publicity about the institute is probably necessary to attract more female trainees, for it is possible that lack of access to information may be one of the reasons why so few women join the programme.

Upon further examination, it appeared that instructors were merely perpetuating male stereo-types of women's preferred areas of specialisation. Upon further questioning, they acknowledged that women who participated in the programme were as good and capable as men and indeed demonstrated greater deligence, discipline, and hard work. They were however, slower in cutting machine pieces and lifting equipment. This could be avoided, they said, if the machinery was up-dated. Modern technology required less physical efforts, but it was recognised that the up-dating of machinery in the institute would incur greater overhead costs. They noted that one of the reasons why western women could take on such trades was because the modern equipment used required less physical effort. Males trainees themselves often complained that there were not enough machines to go around, causing some loss of interest in the training programme. The workshop was hot, uncomfortable, and overcrowded. It was felt that women might be better off learning other types of skills in a more comfortable environment. Therefore, it was clear that sexual stereotyping of occupations by trainees was also one of the contributory factors to women's low participation in these training programmes. A reorientation of such values on the part of potential trainees is necessary.

**Akojaya Sendirion, (Northern Branch)**
**Butterworth, Penang**

The company was established in 1982 with an initial capital investment of R$1 million (US$400,000) and a staff strength of 25 (full time and administrative). It has approximately 40 stocklist agents

(Star Dealers/Stock-case) and 2,500 dealers in Peninsular Malaysia, of which 95% are women recruited predominantly from the Malay community. Significantly, it taps the Malay consumer market in rural areas. More than 75% of the buyers are Malay's. The company encourages Malay women to become dealers, mainly because Malay women have proven to be the best customers. Agents and managers (unit and branch) remained essentially Chinese.

The company mainly deals with products imported from a French wholesale company, under the management of D.J. Durand. They cover a wide range of crockery, cooking ware, and glasses. These products are widely distributed throughout most South East Asian countries through the regional office in Singapore. Companies in Malaysia, which trade in the products have no direct dealings with the French company, and import their merchandise directly from Singapore. The products are purchased at a frenzied pace by Malaysian housewives and single women but, as mentioned earlier, the majority of buyers are Malays. The products are purchased for many reasons, one of which is the strongly attached 'imported' label which ranks it as a prestige item in villages and towns. The products are also supposedly unbreakable, heat and flame resistant, and come in an extremely wide range of attractive floral designs. These qualities serve to rate them as durable and items of long-term investment. Significantly, the collection of such items has permeated Malay traditional expenditure patterns relating to prestige buying and hoarding, and ranks it as an important form of social investment. It has also occupied an important position in rituals of gift exchange within the family, usually from mother to daughter.

Within the Malay community, sales and marketing is an important venue for income generating amongst single women, housewives and working women on a part-time basis. The emphasis on women's economic independence and flexible parental duties and responsibilities, within a bilateral family and kinship order, which has less separation of roles and status according to gender, places the women in an advantageous position to develop a successful career in sales and marketing. In Akojaya, the majority of distributors and Star Dealers are 'husband and wife' teams. The wife usually initiates the business and eventually incorporates her husband. As one dealer states,

> "Success in sales depends on the individual. A lot of hard work has to be put into the business before it can be successful. If the individual wants to be successful and is prepared to work hard, then that person will be successful. A woman needs the support of her husband before she can devote all her energy into the business full-time. It is however better to recruit her husband into the business with her (hence the numerous husband and wife teams). The most successful dealers were formerly housewives".

This quote shows husbands can also be involved in such businesses by assisting in transportation and networking. Though it has been emphasised by the women interviewed that little training is required and that everything depends on motivation, hard work, and personality, it may be necessary to explore the added difficulties of women venturing into services or products aimed at male consumers. Here more professional training is required related to marketing strategies, personal communication, and psychology.

### MADA
**Malaysian Agricultural Development Authority**
**Alor Setar, Kedah**

The primary objectives of MADA are to stimulate, induce, and unite rice farmers into a progressive community that can promote agricultural, economic and social development in the Muda region which covers an area of approximately 125,987 hectares. Of this total area, 95,856 hectares (76%) are being planted with padi by approximately 63,000 farmers with an average farm size per family of 1.7 hectares. The number of women officers in MADA stands at only four including one female agricultural engineer. These women are placed in various departments, including planning and research. Interviews were conducted with three female officers (out of a total of four officers, two are diploma and two are degree holders) from three different departments - Training, Planning and Research, and Farm Family Development. Generally, they felt that the Farm Family Development Programme should be given more importance by MADA, particularly by the male administrators some of whom apparently do not take the programme seriously. The women's training centre within the Family Development Department is administered by a staff of seven, which includes one man. The Family Development Department covers only 11 of the 27 localities in MADA and receives a number of extension workers, both male and female. However, the majority of women extension workers within MADA are recruited to help out on the accounts of the various farmers' associations within the MADA area. The women officers also spoke of the lack of commitment on the part of male officers to extension work, and the women's own difficulties due to the travel and field conditions. This seemed to be a serious problem in view of the fact that MADA employed 43 extension workers in the agricultural division alone, of which 38 are women (88.37%)

A visit to an income-generating project initiated by the farmers' association at Sg. Limau, Yan showed that such projects were exclusively designed to provide employment for daughters of members of the farmers' association. The project involved shoe/boot production on a small scale. Sixteen women workers, all single with basic sewing skills, were employed under one male and one female supervisor. After passing the interview process and demonstrating sewing skills, the women are sent to the parent shoe factory for training. Employment of the women is dependent on orders, and when orders are high, two shifts are operated. When orders are low, only one shift is run. Since the women are paid daily, they do not obtain any wages if orders are not received. When 50% of the women workers were interviewed, they gave similar responses about wanting more training and regular employment. They felt that their training could be diversified to include other forms of sewing skills (cushions, upholstery, cloth, slippers, etc.). The need for regular employment was obvious since lay-offs during inactive periods were said to be a drain on resources.

**School of Management**
**University Sains Malaysia (USM)**
**Minden, Penang**

Although the school of Management was only officially established in 1984, management was already integrated as a sub-discipline within the school of Social Sciences from 1975 as a minor programme and from 1978 as a major programme. It is, therefore, the newest addition to the list of programmes at the school. While in terms of numbers, female student enrolment has increased over the years, this increase is insignificant in terms of percentages. Registration in 1986/87 of female students declined by 11.5%. In reviewing selection procedures which are primarily based on merit, subject to an ethnic quota (50% Bumiputra and 50% non-Bumiputra) it is apparent that students are not discriminated against in terms of gender. However, except for 1985/86,the percentage of women who were admitted into management does not reflect the overall percentage of women admitted into the university. The problem is partly related to sexual stereotyping in choice of courses at the university. For example, in humanities/ education related disciplines, the percentage of women registered in courses was 71.3% (348). Thus, basic socio-structured factors continue to act as an obstacle to women's potential development in careers relating to management, accounting, or business.

Interviews with four of the eighteen staff members of the school (i.e. 28%; 2 male and 2 female) were conducted to obtain insight into gender perceptions of work and career-development within the school.

Male-female perceptions of rewards in relation to performance and productivity differed significantly. While the men felt that women were not discriminated against in training and promotion, women perceived their position as being clearly at a disadvantage. They felt that women had to work harder to prove themselves to be as capable as men, and were generally excluded from administrative duties although they would like to assume stronger positions of responsibility.

Significantly, both teachers and students of management appear to be high achievers with high aspirational levels. However, women students appear to be more confident and enthusiastic about their future than women academics. Despite an eagerness to compete with men and to assume important positions of leadership, perceptions of 'male dominance', 'conspiracies' and 'alliances' have forced many women to view and even accept their own advancement in lesser terms than that of men. Sexual perceptions of role and behaviour, within a similar working situation continue to be different, even at the tertiary level of education and training. This exploratory study may well be developed further, to find out if women's self-perceptions and the perceptions of men indeed act as a psychological disincentive to compete for decision-making. While there is no lack of high productivity and keen competion amongst women, the spirit of intersexual competition appears to be subsumed by notions of limited access to power and authority.

Suggestions for advancing women's participation in non-traditional sectors of employment (such as business management, accounting, etc.) were as follows:

- For administrators and planners, through the effective use of mass media, films, talks, etc., to break down traditional male-female attitudes about themselves and each other.
- For women themselves to overcome psychological barriers, which impede their own personality and career development (such as fear of criticism from their male counterparts; hesitance in voicing decisions; reluctance to undertake risks in careers; etc.).

  Furthermore, it was felt that women often attempted to combine the "impossible" (i.e. positions which suited family interests, but at the same time aspiring to decision-making positions). Further, they were usually unsuccessful in transfering some of their family responsibilities to men.
- Through effective policies, the government could provide equal opportunities for women to assume lucrative positions with high status.

- Provide more training for women in fields now monopolised by men.
- Provide more talks, career-guidance seminars for students in secondary schools on opportunities open to them in fields other than those with which they are familiar. ("If men make good nurses, why cant't women make good managers?)
- Loosen restrictions and conditions imposed on woman who want to do business, and educate bankers on giving loans to women without prejudice ("It's as if they don't trust women").

**Motorola**
**Penang**

The company produces pagers and hybrids for communications equipment and also thick film. When it started the production of thick film in 1979, it was the only factory in Penang turning out the three components at the same time. Thick film is the printing of electronic circuits onto bare ceramics. The finished products are used to make hybrid modules which are in turn used in radios. Products from the Penang factory are also used in space programmes e.g., the Mariner IV Mission to Mars. Most of the products are shipped back to the United States, but some are exported directly to England, Germany, Canada, Australia, and Hong Kong.

In recruitment, all applicants are subject to an interview, and successful candidates are selected on the basis of experience and academic merit. However, only women are considered as production workers. Production workers and general staff are not unionised. In terms of training, on-the-job training is provided for all categories of staff, and the form and duration of training varies depending on the company. Women and men have equal access to training since training is usually based on merit and productivity.

**Institute Kemahiran MARA (IKM)**
**Sungei Petani, Kedah**

IKM was founded in 1973 with the following objectives:

- to provide young people (both male and female) with business and trade skills, to enable them to be economically independent and to encourage them to be actively involved in the business and industrial fields.
- to overcome the problem of insufficient skilled workers in the private and public sectors.
- to upgrade the skills and capability of youths already involved in trades.
- to reduce the rate of unemployment among Bumiputra in skilled work and trade in every level and type of work.

There are 500 trainees in the institute out of which 150 (30%) are women. The women are found in three courses

- Architectural Drawing
- Structural Drawing
- Canvas and Cushion Trade

The performance of women students is reported to be satisfactory. In some cases women are said to perform better than male colleagues. At present the institute has six male and two female course instructors.

Seven percent (i.e. 10 women) of the trainees were interviewed to obtain further information about their socio-economic background and the training programme. They stated that competition to enter was very keen amongst men but even so, women had to be short-listed before they were interviewed by the selection board. The objective test was administered after the interview and it represented the final stage in the selection process. Thus, women trainees faced as much competition as the men. However, women trainees admitted that the courses at the institute were 'male-oriented' or more specifically designed to train men rather than women. This was confirmed by the deputy head of the institute who said that the training courses were geared towards the private sector, and that since this sector did not want female graduates and often specified male trainees, there was nothing that the institute could do.

Furthermore, the institute did not plan to revise its curriculum to include more women, because other institutes administered by MARA and various other agencies provided more than enough training courses for women in female-related occupations.

This pragmatic view of the job market in the private sector was confirmed by the respondents who said that, on the whole, male employability was higher than female. However, the majority believed that they could do better than their parents, if better employment prospects were made available. A preference was indicated for self-employment rather than wage earning. (For example, some reactions were: "want to open a business in 10 years"; "want to be a building contractor, if people find it acceptable to hire me as one"; " want to obtain an upholstery shop, if I have money")

Respondents also listed some suggestions for advancing women's participation in non-traditional sectors of employment:

- Increase the intake of women in industrial courses by providing them with more encouragement to take up new challenges in life.
- Increase opportunities for women's employment within the private sector by educating employers on women's ability to perform in male dominated occupations.
- Increase access to information on training and employment, including guidance to school children and information on self-employment prospects for women trainees and graduates.
- Educate the private sector and also use the mass media effectively to make people (including women) believe in women's abilities.

The study also highlights the following recommendations:

- Systematic development of career guidance programmes in institutions of learning to diversify attitudes and conceptions of women's work away from conventional, stereo-typed notions reinforced by parents and educators.

- Review school curricula as they may reinforce gender differentiation in formal education (e.g. home sciences for girls, industrial sciences for boys etc). Systematic research and evaluation of vocational training programmes, aimed at accommodating more clearly the skills and potential of both males and females.
- Effective reformulation of farm family development programmes which are formulated with certain traditional (often misconceived) assumptions relating to women's roles in rural society. Access to more information and technical knowledge should be provided, while the existing low status of family development programmes, amongst administrators and extension workers should be overcome by dissociating them from notions of women and the family, and structuring programmes in relation to non-gender specific target groups like the 'Young Generation Farmers Movement'. Where employment opportunities exist, alternative training in related areas of work should be provided at times when lay-offs and shut-downs occur.
- Increased communication and linkages with the private sector should be encouraged to hire more women in upper level managerial positions and in middle/low-level occupations, traditionally occupied by men like contractors, welders, and mechanics.
- Promote research on indigenous institutions of credit or savings, which may be important potential venues for promoting managerial business skills for women without formal education or training. A pilot study on the potential of such institutions for management and business training should be attempted.
- Remove pre-existing definitions of work productivity and effectiveness related to gender,in the private sector. This may be done by encouraging labour organisations and governments to meet and how active concern for value differentiation of work based on gender.

- Systematic compilation of gender statistics by institutions and the Corporation of Training and Employment, enforced through national policy, as a constant evaluative procedure of monitoring women's development in different sectors of production. This should be taken up as a new directive by the Labour and Education Ministries, trade unions, and Departments of Statistics and Manpower.

# SUMMARY CASE STUDY PHILIPPINES

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## EDUCATION AND TRAINING

Broad policies in education and training are contained in two vital documents, namely the "Philippines Constitution of 1973" and "Labour Code of the Philippines" which became law in 1974. Both documents place emphasis on the provision of education and training to all citizens regardless of sex to ensure that the people enjoy a decent standard of living.

### Literacy rate

Literacy as defined in the country up to 1980 meant the ability to read and write. An increasing trend in the literacy rate for both males and females is shown in this Table:

Literacy Rate By sex

1960-1970-1980

| YEAR | BOTH SEXES | MALES | FEMALES |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1960 | 72.0 | 73.6 | 70.6 |
| 1970 | 82.6 | 84.3 | 80.9 |
| 1980 | 83.3 | 83.9 | 82.8 |

A very low sex differential of 1.1 percent is evident, particulary in the 1980 data. A larger variance in literacy rate, however, is provided by the urban-rural differential, specially in the 20 and over age group as shown below.

Literacy Rate: 1970 and 1980

| AGE | Female |  | Male |  | Both Sexes |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | 1970 | 1980 | 1970 | 1980 | 1970 | 1980 |
| Philippines | 80.9 | 82.8 | 84.3 | 83.9 | 82.6 | 83.3 |
| 15 to 19 years | 93.2 | 92.9 | 92.3 | 91.3 | 92.7 | 92.1 |
| 20 yrs.& over | 78.2 | 80.4 | 82.6 | 82.2 | 80.4 | 81.3 |
| Urban | 91.3 | 92.3 | 94.0 | 94.0 | 92.5 | 93.1 |
| 15 to 19 years | 96.8 | 97.1 | 96.9 | 96.8 | 96.8 | 97.0 |
| 20 yrs.& over | 90.0 | 91.2 | 93.4 | 93.4 | 91.6 | 92.2 |
| Rural | 75.3 | 76.1 | 79.6 | 77.6 | 77.4 | 76.9 |
| 15 to 19 years | 91.0 | 89.9 | 90.1 | 88.0 | 90.5 | 89.0 |
| 20 yrs.& over | 72.0 | 72.9 | 77.4 | 75.2 | 74.7 | 74.1 |

## Female Participation in Education

That education in the Philippines is an equal social system is shown in the participation rate of females in the elementary, secondary, tertiary, and graduate/post graduate levels. According to 1983-1984 data, a higher percentage of males was found in the pre-school and elementary level at both public and private educational system. In the secondary level however, females represented more than fifty percent of the total number of students. Women outnumber men in the tertiary level, a trend that is continued in graduate education. Data reveals that women constituted almost 65 percent of the total graduate and post graduate enrolment in 1977-1978.

## Vocational and Technical Training

Various organisations in the country, both governmental and non-governmental, offer vocational training. The government agencies include: the Bureau of Continuing Education (formerly the Office of Non-Formal Education) of the Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports; (MECS) the Bureau of Agricultural Extension, Ministry of Agriculture; Ministry of Social Services and Development; and the National Manpower and Youth Council.

## Bureau of Continuing Education

The non-formal education programme of the government was launched in May 1977. The programme areas include functional literacy, civic-citizenship education, socio-cultural development, sports and physical fitness, leadership training, mass media education, and vocational/technical skills training.

Functional literacy as a programme component has for its objective reading, writing, and computation skills development. The MECS 1980 Annual Report stated that, during the period under review, there was a total of 2,539,317 illiterates and semi-literates in the country. Strengthening functional literacy was therefore laid down as a policy in 1981.

Mass media education is provided through the Lingap Ng Pangulo Sa Barangay school-on-the-air programme. This is specifically addressed to those in the rural areas who may otherwise never have the chance to acquire an education. The content of the broadcasts includes new technology in agriculture and information on government development programmes. The completion of fifty listening/discussion hours entitles one to a certificate. This certificate in turn affords one preference over others for employment in government programmes.

A programme revision occurred in early 1985 whereby only two components were continued: functional literacy and livelihood skills development. In December 1985, from the number of graduates from the former was 48,854, while graduates from the latter totaled 267,003.

The non-formal education programme is open to both males and females. Women and girls flock to the traditionally female courses such as food preservation, baking, cosmetology, garments, weaving, and typing.

The present aggregation of data on skills training output makes it impossible to report on the number of female graduates. Also, the absence of support systems, such as placement and follow-up, make it impossible to gauge the impact of the programme on the graduates' employability after training.

## Home Economics Programme Division, Bureau of Agricultural Extension

As of 1975, the educational profile of rural women showed that 2.5 percent completed college, 1.3 percent dropped out of college, 2.2 percent finished high school, 4.9 percent had some high school education, 16.6 percent completed elementary education, while 27.8 did not complete any grade. To help raise the status of rural women, the Integrated Programme for Rural Women was launched in 1980 by the Ministry of Agriculture through its Bureau of Agricultural Extension (BAEX). The programme content combines nutrition, home management, family life, and agribusiness.

The Integrated Programme for Rural Women is unique in that it has utilised existing barangay based organisations such as rural improvement clubs. As of 1982, there were 6,981 clubs all over the Philippines with 300,000 members. Through this infrastructure, the BAEX has greatly helped rural women with its network of 2,400 home management technicians.

The agribusiness component of the programme is designed along training cum production lines. An example of this is the RIC gherkins production and processing project. Gherkins were chosen because this is a good inter-crop to produce, and can be sold fresh and/or pickled. Financial assistance was provided by the UN Development Fund for Women (UNIFEM) through ESCAP. To date, the pilot projects have become financially solvent and are operating on their own.

## Ministry of Social Services and Development (MSSD)

The programme of the MSSD caters to the bottom 30 percent of the population composed of family heads, out-of school youths, the disabled and distressed. The Self-Employment Assistance Programme (SEAP) offers training which leads to self-employment. Capital assistance such as loans for production ventures in areas such as mini-agribusiness, home-based business, and food yielding processes is provided to the trainees.

The MSSD 1982 Annual Report placed the number of those who have taken advantage of the SEAP at 710,000.

## National Manpower and Youth Council (NMYC)

The NMYC is responsible for manpower training and development through the administration of training programmes and concomitant support services. The agency also provides assistance to any employer or organisation in the design of training schemes.

Under the first task, training administration, the agency undertakes instructor training, entrepreneurship training, and training in vocations, trades, and other fields. The vocational skills training programmes cover major classes of workers categorised in the Philippines Standard Occupational Classification (PSOC) such as professional, technical and related workers; administrative, executive and managerial workers; agricultural animal husbandry workers, forestry workers, fishermen and hunters; and production and related workers. Cottage training industries for entrepreneurship development are also offered.

As of the third quarter of 1985, NMYC graduates included a total of 51,679 females.

# CROSSING TRADITIONAL OCCUPATIONAL BARRIERS

A vital provision in the Philippines Development Plan 78-82 that has been missed by previous studies on the policies for women's training and employment states: 'Women will be accorded equal opportunities to work in areas traditionally occupied by men."

The entry of women into training in non-traditional areas in the NMYC Regional Manpower Training Centres (RMTC's) started in 1979, with the first batch of women trainees in gas welding and electrical wiring. Since then, all RMTCs have encouraged more women to enter training in male dominated areas. NMYC data from 1984-1985 shows that females were trained in courses for the industrial, agricultural and agro-industrial trades. The specific courses and the corresponding number of women trained are as follows: auto transport - 144; construction - 97; electrical - 1,149; printing - 115; welding - 106; furniture and cabinet making - 197; wood 1,196; machine shop - 170; automechanic - 99; construction design - 430; heavy equipment operation and maintenance - 2; refrigeration an airconditioning - 41; ship building and repair - 109; stevedoring - 57; sheet metal - 1; basic refining operation - 4; casting technology - 84; structural works - 10; car body building - 47; motor generation installation - 2'; building wiring - 1; building maintenance - 3; and plumbing and pipefitting - 4.

For the agricultural and agro-industrial trades, the courses and corresponding number of female graduates are enumerated below; agro-forestry - 782; animal husbandry - 1,260; fish culture - 1,710; seaweed culture - 4,236; and farm mechanics - 15.

Interviews with female trainees in 1983 revealed that better employment chances remained the foremost motivation for getting into training in male dominated fields. One interesting factor that surfaced in the interviews is the common misconception that men naturally excel in industrial, high technology skills while women do not.

While no study has been undertaken to date on whether these female trainees are employed in the occupations for which they were trained, it is safe to assume, based on feedback from RMTCs, that at least 60% are working in the areas for which they were trained.

Providing the impetus for the NMYC training of women in areas dominated by men is the manpower guidance programme of the agency. Utilising a two-pronged approach of mass media and individual intervention, the programme has strong career information and career motivation components addressed to the whole community as well as young people. Moreover, the programme taps community resources for a communal effort towards career guidance and development for young people and unemployed adults.

## Vocational Skills Training Support Systems

The effectiveness of training partly depends on various support systems. Components of the NMYC skills training support system include manpower guidance and trade testing.

The manpower guidance programme of NMYC is a relatively new concept and is a departure from the guidance and counseling programme within the formal school set-up in the approaches utilised. For instance, the community based approach taps community resources for occupational information dissemination and motivation. Manpower guidance therefore becomes a communal undertaking. Community manpower guidance activities include careers photo exhibits and the intensive use of mass media, both printed and non-printed, as effective ways to broaden the reach of occupational information and enhance motivation. One to one interventions, within the RMTCs, reinforce the gains of these community and mass media activities.

The regionalisation of the programme with the creation of guidance units in all regional manpower training centres in 1979, accelerated the delivery of guidance services to a greater number of school leavers and unemployed adults. The guidance programme of the agency spurred the entry of women into training in non-traditional occupations. The strength of the programme lies in its vital components: career information addressed to the cognitive level of the clients and motivation components targeted towards the clients affective level and the corresponding attitudinal changes.

The objective of the programme includes the provision of factual occupational information for culturally sensitive career planning, the redirection of work values, and attitude changes and development.

## Trade Testing and Certification

The Trade Standards Testing and Certification Programme of NMYC was established in close coordination with industry. The programme provides a mechanism for determining and certifying the level of skill and knowledge possessed by workers and prospective workers in the government and private sectors.

Those tested include graduates of vocational, technical, and other short term skills courses, workers in industry with or without formal training, perspective overseas workers, vocational/technical instructors, and government blue collar workers.

NMYC data from the national capital region, covering January to June 1985, shows that 178 female graduates took the trade tests in electronics and high speed sewing.

This programme has great potential in helping women develop self-confidence upon passing the trade test when seeking entry into male dominated jobs.

## National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW)

As a national machinery, the NCRFW acts as an advisory body that reviews, evaluates, and recommends measures, including priorities that would ensure the full integration of women in economic, social, and cultural development. The programme implemention arm of the NCRFW is the Balikatan sa Kaunlaran (BSK) which addresses its programmes to poor women in both urban and rural areas.

Organising themselves into provincial councils, municipal chapters, or barangay units, women in various areas decide and implement projects such as skill training, income generating activities, programmes for value orientation, personal development, nutrition, health, and culture.

As of 1984, a total of 132 duly organised provincial BSK councils existed with about 3 million members. Reports from 57 councils indicate 3,595,557 beneficiaries of 22 projects. Estimates of the money involved in the different projects amounted to 55,584,956.00 pesos.

## Women in Management Training: National Manpower and Youth Council

The NMYC, aside from administering vocational skills training programmes, is also mandated to undertake management training. Some of the courses conducted include basic and advanced supervisory development courses; supervisory/middle management seminars; advanced managerial seminars; human relations management courses, and personnel management/ development courses.

The Training Contract Scheme (TCS), a component of the NMYC Vocational Training Project, which was launched in 1983, provided the necessary momentum for an intensification of management training.

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The TCS is expected to forge a closer bond between industry and the government in manpower development for small and medium scale export oriented industries through a system of shared financial responsibilities.

Priority industrial sectors covered by the TCS include the following: coal mining, wood products, hotels and restaurants, printing, land transportation, construction, leathergoods, power, electricity, water, gas, garments, agribusiness, automotive, computer, metals, and engineering.

Data from mid 1983 to 1986 shows that a total of 18,643 supervisors have availed of the courses subsidised through the TCS. Out of this number 5,652 or 30.32 percent are female. The highest female participation occured in the hotel and restaurant industry with 1,586 supervisors trained, followed by the garments sector with 1,415. The coal mining and computer industries registered the lowest number of participants at 23 and 28 respectively.

## Personnel Management Association of the Philippines (PMAP)

The Personnel Management Association of the Philippines (PMAP) is a professional organisation that undertakes management training for both members and non-members. The Personnel Management Institute is the training arm of the association.

Training courses cover areas such as personnel and industrial relations, job evaluation, wage and salary administration, personnel recruitment, motivation and others. In terms of female participation, data from the PMAP from 1978 to 1983 show that, out of 2,352 participants, 1,000 or 46.78 percent were females. Participants are mostly middle managers from industry and the private sector.

PMAP through its PMI, however, is just one of the private training institutions administering management training and development programmes.

NMYC data shows that there is a total of 40 training institutions involved in management development programmes through the Training Contract Scheme.

## Civil Service Commission (CSC)

Management training for middle level managers (division chiefs and officials of equivalent rank) in government service is provided by the Civil Service Commission (CSC) through its Civil Service Academy. Data on women managers' participation in management courses conducted by the CSC is not, however, available.

At the executive level, the Career Executive Service (CES) training is conducted by the Development Academy of the Philippines. (This includes all positions directly below the top political command, such as ministers, deputy ministers, regional directors, bureau directors, assistant bureau directors, and ministry service chiefs.)

The increasing percentage of women at the CES level is shown in the following data. In 1974, female participation at this level was less than 15 percent; in 1980, 26 percent, and in 1983, 36 percent. This total however,represents less than one percent of the total number of women in the career service.

## Women in Entrepreneurship

Manifestation of the national government's commitment to entrepreneurship development runs through three development plans, 1974-1977, 1978-1982, and 1983-1987. Considered as a vital factor in economic recovery, entrepreneurship has great potential for employment generation, regional dispersal of industries, and export/foreign exchange generation. Moreover, the small/medium industrial (SMI) sector is less dependent on oil, imported inputs, and foreign technology and skills.

## University of the Philippines, Institute for Small Scale Industries (UPISSI)

To give substance to policies, the UPISSI was established in 1966 to provide assistance in entrepreneurship development. The development activities of the institute focus on three areas: These are, entrepreneurial and management training for existing and prospective small businessmen; training of instructors, consultants, extension/information officers, loan officers, and other SMI development catalysts; and policy and evaluation research for the improvement of the sector.

Women's participation in entrepreneurship training is minimal. According to UPISSI data from 1975 to 1985, only 486 females attended the various courses offered by the institute.

## National Cottage Industry Development Authority (NACIDA)

The National Cottage Industry Development Authority NACIDA was established and became operational as early as 1962 through the Republic Act 3470. In 1981, it was transferred to the Ministry of Industry with expanded functions.

Government entrepreneurship development programmes through the UPISSI and NACIDA cover the following areas:

- **Financial Support**

Financial resources for small and medium industries (SMI) are provided through direct lending and guaranteed credit insurance. The Development Bank of the Philippines (DBP) provides direct lending, while the Industrial Guarantee and Loan Fund (IGLF) and the Guarantee Fund for Small and Medium Enterprises (GFSME) provide the guarantee or credit insurance. The IGLF and the GFSME insure the participation of commercial banks in entrepreneurship and SMI development. A fourth SMI financing scheme is equity financing by several Venture Capital Corporations (VCCs). In this scheme the government holds 40% corporate ownership with the commercial banks holding the balance.

**. Consultancy and Extension**

The Medium and Small Scale Industries Coordinated Action Programme (MASICAP), which was later integrated into the Small Business Advisory Centres (SBAC) of the Bureau of Small/Medium Industries (BSMI), was organised to provide potential entrepreneurs with assistance in project preparation and feasibility studies, and to function as a link between financing institutions and the entrepreneurs.

**. Marketing**

Government assistance is twofold; providing information and promoting export marketing activities. The former includes market information, product promotion, standardisation and quality control, trading posts, and marketing studies.

Export marketing activities are undertaken by agencies such as the Philippine International Trading Corporation (PITC), the Centre for International Trade Exposition and Missions (CITEM), and 12 accredited trading corporations (ATCs).

**. Training**

Consultants, extension officials, entrepreneurs, and SMI employees are beneficiaries of training courses. The agencies involved in entrepreneurship training include the UPISSI, the Design Centre of the Philippines (DCP), NMYC, and NACIDA.

**. Production Technology**

This strategy harnesses research and development of indigenous materials, appropriate technology, and the standardisation and quality control of various science institutions to improve SMIs.

. **Private Sector Participation**

Aside from commercial banks which provide financing, promotion, and transfer of technology, universities, civic organisations, and professional groups promote SMI. For instance, the Asian Institute of Management (AIM), Ateneo de Manila University, the University of the East, and the De La Salle University offer courses and extension programmes for small enterprise and entrepreneurship development.

Workshops and seminars on entrepreneurship and SMI are conducted by professional groups and civic organisations.

## ISSUES AND RECOMMENDATIONS

. Policy enunciations in the three Philippine development plans, 1974-1977, 1978-1982, and 1984-1987, tend to categorise women as social welfare beneficiaries. Some women's groups in the country decry the overemphasis given to the role of women as wives and mothers which eclipses their equally important role as workers on farms or in factories and offices, where they actively contribute to the family's, the community's, and the nation's socio-economic development. Equally over-shadowed is the fact that they are a significant national resource which needs further education and training to maximise its contribution to society.

According to the Philippine Women's Research Collective (1985) policy statements concerning women in two plans are contained in twelve statements, but seven of these refer to the health and nutrition needs of pregnant women and lactating mothers. The view of policy makers on the other hand, as contained in these plans, is that the strategy for developing human resources calls for the improvement of physical, intellectual, and material well being. The issue on hand is the absence of clear cut policies and support systems for the development of the knowledge and skills of working women. While explicit provisions exist for pregnant or lactating mothers and mechanisms such as feeding centres are provided, nothing can be found in the plans for relevant skills upgrading or management development for working women.

NCRFW believes that this policy gap is a result of the very minimal participation accorded to women in policy making bodies. If women's education and training concerns are to be covered in the development plans, the number of women in policy- making bodies should be increased.

. Education in the two earlier mentioned development plans is expected to motivate changes in people's attitudes and values. Sex stereotyping, however, is still evident in textbooks at the elementary and secondary levels. The bias towards blue collar occupations is still prevalent despite efforts towards industrialisation. Women have not been motivated to enter into non-traditional professions or occupations. Efforts towards this end have been marginal and confined to very few agencies. A reorientation in curriculum and textbook content, to do away with traditional sex role stereotypes, should be undertaken together with a massive reorientation of education and training personnel.

. The plans provide for equal opportunities in education and training. As stated earlier, problems along this line do not exist within schools and training centres. Training only becomes sex specific in the work setting where women are normally edged out of training opportunities. For instance, in rural households women are not encouraged to participate in training in using new technologies, which would give them marketable skills and better employment opportunities. Such training is usually earmarked for men. Observations show that in agricultural programmes the extension agents work with male farmers, while the home management technicians work with the wives on their domestic tasks.

Training opportunities at the work site should be made available to women to raise their level of skills so they are not confined to low- skilled and low- paying jobs.

Training offered to women is still oriented to traditionally female occupations. This could stem from the belief that men excel in technology oriented training. One interesting response from women, when queried about their reluctance to go into non-traditional training, was that they were not even aware that women were capable of handling industrial machines.

A study of male dominated jobs for which qualify and gain access should be undertaken, after which the mass media should be harnessed for information dissemination and motivation purposes.

. Data shows a very minimal increase of 9 percent within a ten year period (1970-1980) in the literacy rate of rural women. Since increasing literacy is a vital means of adequately preparing women to assume an active role in the development of their communities, literacy programmes should be strengthened. Massive information and attitudinal development campaigns should be undertaken alongside efforts to increase levels of literacy.

. Instructors in the vocational and technical fields are mostly males. A systematic programme for motivating females to enter teacher preparation courses in the technical and vocational fields should be undertaken so they can provide the necessary role models.

. Supervisory positions in the high technology industries are usually allocated to men. Women should be given equal opportunities to get into these supervisory positions in production and manufacturing.

## Employment of Women

The labour force participation rate (LFPR) for women increased from 44.7 percent in 1978 to 49.7 percent in 1983. The increase represents a 23.5 percent increase in the female labour force, from 6.091 million in 1978, up to 7. 937 million in 1983. Significantly, since 1978, the LFPR for women has been steadily increasing with the highest annual growth rate of 6.1 percent in 1983.

As to the sectoral distribution of employed women in the labour force, the majority of them are in the wholesale and retail trade (66.1 percent) and personal services (56.6 percent), which is in contrast to that of male workers whose greatest source of employment is in the construction sector (94.4%), transportation and communication (95.5%), and mining and quarrying (93.1%). As can be expected, female employment in these fields was very minimal; in mining 6.9%, transportation and communication 4.4%, and construction 2.6%. This pattern of sectoral distribution had been consistent over the decade from 1972 to 1983.

Consistent with this sectoral employment distribution, the greatest number (4.81M) and proportion (66.1%) of employed female workers in 1983 were recorded in the sales/retail trade sector. Following next were professional and related workers (62.7%), service workers (60.6%) and clerical workers (50.3%). Meanwhile the apparent difficulty women workers face in securing positions at higher levels of decision-making is reflected in the extremely small proportion (25%) of women engaged in administrative, executive, and managerial work.

## Marital Status

A comparison of 1978 and 1983 figures of the LFPR of married women shows that rates were comparatively lower than for other categories of women in 1978, but higher in 1983. This could indicate of a need for married women to work for additional family income as a result of inflation.

## Age Grouping

The requirement for relevant work experience by most employers is obvious in the high LFPR of older women. Data from the third quarter of 1983 shows that women 25 years and over rank first in the bulk of women employed by age group, followed by the 45 to 64 years group. Most unemployed women belong to the 15 to 24 years category.

## Unemployment Trend for Women Workers

There were .65 million unemployed female workers during the third quarter of 1983. Of this number, 82.02 percent were found in rural areas, while the remaining number were found in urban areas. As a result of the economic crisis and recession in 1983, the unemployment rate for female workers further deteriorated from 7.45 percent in 1978 to 8.20 percent in 1983.

In the fourth quarter of 1982, 72.7 percent of unemployed females wanted full time work and 27.3 percent preferred part-time employment. Furthermore, 59.9 percent of unemployed women were wage and salary earners, 21 percent were unpaid family workers, and 16.9 percent were own account workers. By major occupation group, 32.9 percent of unemployed females were engaged in agriculture, animal husbandry, or forestry, and 56.3 percent of agriculture workers were unpaid family workers.

## Average Real Earnings

Although men in general receive higher average real earnings, the gap is narrowing from a difference of P552 in 1978 to P245 in 1983. All categories of male workers received much higher average real earnings than their female counterparts, except in family-owned enterprises and in the wage and salary working class. Women employers earned much higher incomes (26.3 percent) than their male counterparts in 1983. Women in family enterprises and wage and salary workers earned 17 percent more.

In government service, men earned 20 percent more than women in 1978. This reinforces the observation that men occupy higher positions in the civil service system. As of 1983, a decrease of 12 percent is shown in the gap of average earnings.

## Real Earnings by Industry/Occupation

Generally, female own account workers earned less than female wage and salary workers.

The highest quarterly earnings posted in 1983 were those of female wage and salary workers in the transportation and financial groups. In 1978, those in the financial groups posted the highest income, followed by those in utilities, particularly electricity, gas and water. Among own account workers, women in the wholesale and retail trade realised the highest earnings in the same year, followed by those in the transportation industry.

Female wage and salary workers in the service sector earned more than those who worked on their own account in 1978. The reverse is true in 1983, when own account workers received three times more than the salary/wage earners. Women in agriculture earn the lowest pay whether they are self-employed or wage and salary earners.

## Non-Traditional Employment for Women

A discussion on women's entry into employment in areas perceived to be male dominated necessitates a look at professional, technical, and skilled worker levels. Ideally, even women in scientific fields should be included in this discussion. Limited data however narrows this portion to the professional and semi-skilled skilled worker levels.

"Male" professions where women are now found include engineering (agricultural, civil, electrical and communicative, geodetic, etc.) forestry, medicine, and law, but women's participation in these fields is still low.

Data on women technicians is not available. As to the semi-skilled and skilled worker levels, most of the female graduates of

NMYC in non-traditional areas such as welding, machine shop employment and others are found to be working in the areas in which they were trained. This is based on reports from the NMYC Regional Manpower Development Offices (RMDOs).

## Policy Making Level

A few women can also be found in jobs that entail policy formulation. In the Civil Service Commission (CSC) as of 1985, one of the eight commissioners was a woman.

In the cabinet which consists of heads of ministries, there were three women members as of 1986. Female ministers head the following: Ministry of Education, Culture and Sports, Ministry of Social Services and Development, and the National Economic Development Authority. In addition, for the first time, a woman was appointed to head economic planning and development in the country.

The representation of women in the Career Executive Service (CES) which includes deputy ministers, assistant secretaries, bureau directors, and regional and assistant directors was 36 percent in 1983. However, this figure was less than one percent of the total number of women in the career service.

## Broadening of Women's Training and Employment Through Technology

One of the characteristics of women's employment is their predominance for the most part, in occupations having low levels of skills and corresponding low wages. This situation persists even with the introduction of technology in both industry and agriculture. To help promote the training and employment of women in more challenging jobs, women should be streamed into emerging growth areas. One of these is electronically controlled processes.

In a study conducted by the Manpower Planning Office of the NMYC, the emerging growth areas where women can find employment include: computer aided design (CAD), computerised numerical control (CNC), machine tooling, computer aided manufacturing (CAM), process automation or robotics, business and production data processing, and new organisational technology such as zero inventory systems, food processing, and garments.

## Factors That Influenced Women's Entry Into Male Dominated Areas

A related study was conducted by the NMYC on the entry of women into training and employment in male- oriented fields. The study revealed that the factors influencing their entry into these fields were possession of the required aptitude and interest, opportunity for advancement, and degree of challenge the job offers; high salary; and good personnel benefits.

The factors mentioned above seemingly dispute earlier findings that women work solely for wages. Pursuit of a career, advancement and recognition have seemingly become major factors for women's decisions to enter traditionally male occupations. This trend could be an indication of women's increasing awareness of their potential contribution to the social and economic development of the country.

Respondents in the study were women workers in non-traditional female occupations in the following industrial sectors: agribusiness, construction, automotive, land transportation, computers, garments and textiles, hotels and restaurants, footwear and leathergoods, power, gas, electricity and water, wood and wood products, printing, metals and engineering, coal mining, and communication.

. Retrenchment policies affect females more than males in the manufacturing sector. It may be said that women are always the last in (recruitment promotion), but the first out (in retrenchments). Lack of data and information on the other hand causes difficulties for implementing agencies to monitor the actual working conditions of women, and case studies which bring to light various issues are often the target of professional and political constraints.

Moreover, workers are ignorant of their rights. Up to now women's involvement in labour unions has been very low, probably due to generally low educational attainment and the limited scope of legal training programmes.

Protective laws for women could also induce this kind of situation. Employers may become biased against women, because additional conditions for women tend to use up a company's financial resources. A review of these laws may have become necessary.

. Women generally show preference for self employment or informal work, because these systems provide them with flexibility of time for performing household tasks. Deeply ingrained among Filipino women is the primacy of a wife's duty towards her husband, her children, and her home. Women, therefore, feel more comfortable with their economic roles if this does not conflict with their household duties.

To be able to play these multiple roles, Salinas and Liamzon[1/] believe that "there must be a parallel effort to establish support systems where care of home and children is shared, not just by the community in general, but by men, husbands and fathers in particular." In short, they advocate new lifestyles for families to help women cope with their roles in development.

. The majority of women workers still occupy low skill jobs, with low levels of pay. This phenomenon is based on custom. Both women and men believe that technology oriented jobs are naturally for men. Because of this, almost all of the programmes for women are designed with a sex role orientation so that women are involved in traditional skill programmes such as: home management technology, nutrition, health and environmental sanitation, mothers' classes, etc. Moreover, participation of the women in terms of holding leadership positions in mixed organisations for both men and women is very low.

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[1/] Too Little, Too Late, An Alternative Phil., Report on Government Initiatives for Women, Salinas and Liamzon, 1985

Miralo[2/] observed in 1978 that women's programmes tend to reinforce women's traditional status. This paper does not negate the contribution made by these programmes in raising women's status through harnessing their capabilities and generating awareness of their role in social and economic activities. However, even income generating projects (IGPs) could result in either visible or invisible underemployment. IGPs that provide women with more time for domestic work increase visible underemployment for them. If women desire to earn more out of IGPs, this increases invisible underemployment.

Further, both men and women still consider women's income as secondary to the husband's earnings. It is surprising to note that this attitude prevails even among the few women who have reached the third level in the Civil Service. Traditional attitudes about the "macho ego" of the male as the head of the family and the bread winner is still prevalent. This could be attributed to women's acceptance of the limitations of their wife-mother roles. Despite the disadvantaged position of women in the home with regard to the division of labour and decision making, studies (Bautista 1977; Reining and others 1977) tend to show that the Filipino women's greatest satisfaction is derived from marriage and family life. Lecuanca and Gonzales in 1976 noted in their study that many working women would give up their jobs if family financial resources would allow them to.

The result of this study seems to reinforce the observation that, generally, women workers occupy low level occupations, requiring low level skills with low wages, jobs that don't provide the challenge and meaning that could help lead to job satisfaction. It may also provide an explanation for why technology oriented training programmes are addressed to males.

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[2/] Women and men in Development, Findings from a Pilot Study Virginia A. Miralo, 1980

Traditional attitudes on male-female roles and occupations, slow down women's active and broader participation in employment. Formal and non-formal educational systems, in cooperation with the government, should incorporate attitudinal development into all programmes for women.

. The participation of women in labour unions is marginal, to date. In an analysis of data from the Bureau of Labour Relations (National Capital Region) which covered 968 local union reports (total number 1890) for the period December 1979 to December 1982, the following findings surfaced:

- Seven out of ten labour unions (i.e. 71.4 percent) reported having women members. Over three fourths (77.5 percent) had women officers.

- Women officers, representing less than 5 percent of all women union members, occupied the following positions: treasurer (18.7 percent), secretary (18.4 percent), and board members (14.6 percent).

- Eighty four unions had women presidents. Among these, 30 had collective bargaining agreements (CBAs) and 54 had none. Of the 30 with CBAs, 27 were from manufacturing industries, two from the service sector, and one from a commercial establishment.

- Of the 5.4 without CBAs, 27 came from the manufacturing sector, 14 from commercial establishments, and 13 from the services.

- In unions with CBAs, more than 50 percent of the female workers received benefits such as a welfare plan, maternity leave, vocation and sick leaves, separation and retirement pay, emergency leave benefit, death assistance, and union-business leave.

It may be recommended that trade unions should play a more active role in broadening the employment opportunities and employment conditions of women through intensified workers' rights' education.

. Exploitation of women workers is a problem, especially in the manufacturing sector. This is typified by the conditions in the BEPZ where a study on conditions of working women was conducted. The findings included low wages, substandard working conditions, a low level of awareness of social security/welfare benefits, and weak unionism.

Steps may be taken by the government, employers confederation, and the unions to educate women workers on their rights, and to monitor the implementation of labour laws and standards.

. There is a wide gap between policies and their application. For instance, a look at the support provided to government agencies responsible for women's concerns reveals a lack of resource commitment. The Bureau of Women and Minors (BWM) in 1982 was allotted a budget of 998,000.00 pesos while the appropriation for the Department of Labours and Employment (DOLE) was 102,685,000.00 pesos. The budget of BWM represented about one percent of the total (DOLE) allocation. In 1983, BWM's budget was increased to 1.8 million pesos, but again decreased to 880,000.00 pesos in 1984. Included in the budget for 1984 was a 545,000.00 pesos budget for the Population/Family Planning Office.

For National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women (NCRFW), the constraints include both personnel and financial resource limitations. The NCRFW programme staff is made up of only 4 programme officers and 4 research officers. Clearly, NCRFW lacks the staff to monitor the implementation of laws, measures, policies, and programmes addressed to women's concerns.

In terms of budgetary allocation, the NCRFW was provided 3,070,064 pesos in 1981 and 3,960,620 pesos in 1983. In 1984, 4.6 million pesos was alloted for NCRFW's operations, but viewed within the total budget of the Ministry of Human Settlements (MHS), which in the same year totalled 2,571,593,000.00 pesos, the budget provided NCRFW was a mere pittance at 0.2 percent.

# SUMMARY OF CASE STUDY THAILAND

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The study addresses the link between training and the diversification of women's occupations and employment in Thailand. The original brief specified that the study should concentrate on cases of successful training and employment schemes, which aimed at expanding and diversifying women's occupational opportunities. Unfortunately in Thailand, there were no special schemes designed for diversifying women's occupations into non-traditional jobs as such. Thus, the study was modified to look at the processes whereby diversification is achieved.

The subject was approached in two ways: first, by studying the ways in which some women have acquired non-traditional skills through training schemes; and second, by tracing the career paths of women who are already in non-traditional jobs in private firms and in state-owned enterprises in order to identify factors which influence entry into non-traditional occupations. Non-traditional occupations were interpreted as those occupations in which women were represented as a small minority compared to men, such as engineers, architects, personnel managers, accountants, workers in male-dominated industries (automobile or motor-cycle factories for instance), bus drivers, and draftsmen.

In Thailand most women work. The labour force participation rate among women is almost as high as that of men (71% for females and 78% for males in 1982), and women comprise nearly half of the total labour force. However, a large part of the female workforce is still employed in the agricultural and informal sectors (notably in petty trading and services). In most formal sector employment, males are still in the majority. (Tables 1 & 2).

Basic questions which oriented the study were: How did the women come to know of the training schemes? How did they get in? Has the training been useful to their employment? What were the constraints in the training institutions? What was the role of training and other factors in facilitating the entry of the women into non-traditional occupations.

In the following, a brief account of the case studies is provided. The training schemes discussed [1/] are: training for job placement by the National Institute for Skill Development (NISD) under the Department of Labour; training/seminar in industrial techniques and entrepreneurship development programme, which were both instigated by the Ministry of Industry and; a loan cum-training programme called "Self-Employed Women in Bangkok's Informal Sector" implemented by an NGO, the International Human Assistance Programme (IHAP).

The Department of Labour's training scheme includes both males and females who have completed lower secondary education. Training is provided in basic industrial skills for one year. At the end of the course, the institute finds suitable employers to take the graduates as trainees. Graduates of the institute are well trained, and they are often employed by these firms after they complete their traineeship. This job placement is an important part of the training scheme, and it has helped women who are trained in non-traditional skills to get jobs. The institutes have so far offered courses in drafting, surveying, carpentry, motor works and auto repairs, cement works, electronics, and metalwork for both male and female applicants. The enrolment of male and female trainees in NISD by type of courses is given in Table 3.

The Ministry of Industry's programmes mentioned are aimed at encouraging small scale entrepreneurs of both sexes. Short courses in industrial techniques and in how to run a modern business enterprise are given to small and medium scale producers. Special longer-term courses in selected industrial techniques can be organised upon special request. The breakdown of trainees by sex in the seminar/training in industrial techniques is given in Table 4.

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[1/] These schemes were selected for study because the courses offered were in non-traditional skills and included women applicants.

In all three cases mentioned, women comprise but a very small proportion of all the applicants. None of the programmes are specifically designed for women. No special attempt is made to recruit women. Most of the female applicants (also true in the case of males) find out about the course through word of mouth from graduates of the institutes. These programmes could have an important role to play in preparing women for non-traditional occupations, but all of them suffer from lack of funds and sometimes a shortage of skilled staff. The NISD claims that it does not discriminate against women, but that few women come to apply for courses in non-traditional occupations. Teachers in some courses express apprehension about female students. It is not that they do not work hard and study well, but according to the teachers, the problem is finding employers who will willingly take the graduates.

The Ministry of Industry's programme is useful for female entrepreneurs or small-scale producers who are already engaged in business. However, there is a tendency that only women in formal businesses have access to this scheme.

The "Self-employed Women of Bangkok" programmed by the International Human Assistance Programme (IHAP) offers assistance specifically to women in the informal sector. The programme was run for a period of about two years ending in October 1986. It was funded by USAID, primarily as a pilot project, to find ways to help self-employed women in poor areas of Bangkok to become successful entrepreneurs. The project proved to be quite useful to beginners in self-employed activities (mostly trading and small-scale handicraft production). However, for those who were already engaged in trade, the training programme was too basic. The training included, for example, lessons in how to run a small business and how to save with the bank. The project was constrained by its funding and a lack of experienced trainers/ counsellors.

By tracing the career paths of women in non-traditional occupations [1/], many interesting insights into how some Thai women enter male-dominated jobs are provided. Training is certainly an important condition for entry, and on this score many types of training were found to be relevant: learning from experience with encouragement from family members; training by employers, such as the case of training for female bus drivers provided by the Bangkok Mass Transport Authority; training through formal institutions, such as the National Institute for Skill Development of the Department of Labour provided to draftsmen in engineering design; and formal university education as a pre-requisite for certain professional jobs such as engineers, architects, and accountants. In the case of personnel managers the women in the case studies, who were later promoted to personnel positions, have had university education, and short courses in personnel management and industrial relations. They were encouraged by their employers while they were working, and their training was considered very important for their promotion and furthering their career development.

In the case of women in highly skilled professional jobs, such as architects and engineers, case studies revealed that access to formal university education is important. Although this is not surprising, an important condition in Thailand which makes these professional women find secure employment, has been the liberal and rather open policy of the public sector. The public sector is the largest employer of professional women (in male dominated occupations) in Thailand. All of the architects and engineers covered in the study worked first in the private sector, and later moved to state enterprises where the employment conditions are more secure and where there is a pension scheme. All of the female architects and engineers we included in the case study expressed dissatisfaction with the private sector, where employers tend to show definite favour towards their male colleagues, as can be seen in them the promotion patterns of men compared to those of women.

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1/ The original paper contains the career histories of women working as engineers, architects, accountants, personnel managers, trade unionists, bus-drivers, assembly line workers in a motor-cycle factory, and as draftsmen in engineering design.

The case of the female bus drivers in Thailand illustrates the importance of breaking down institutional barriers to women's entry into male-dominated jobs. Thailand does not have an anti-discrimination law, and in the Constitution both women and men are equal. In the absence of an anti-discrimination law, however, employers may advertise for males or females only in newspapers. Employers do discriminate against women (and also against men in some cases). For instance, the Bangkok Mass Transport Authority (BMTA) a state enterprise admitted only male applicants for bus driving until recently. However, in 1985, women were admitted and trained as drivers for the first time. Since then, Thailand can boast of having several successful female bus drivers. It seems that they have performed excellently, and some of them have been voted the best drivers of the year.

Had it not been that the administration of the BMTA dropped the "male bus driver only" policy, Thailand would still have had no female bus drivers in the formal employment sector (there are female drivers in the informal sector, driving small trucks or vans in side streets). In this particular case, economic necessity on the part of the BMTA played an important role. The motivation to allow women drivers may be derived from the shortage of male drivers. Thus the breaking down of barriers against women entering non-traditional occupation may be linked to the specific manpower needs of employers. Nevertheless, such cases are important, because they allow women to display their talents in male-dominated jobs.

Although training was seen to be very important to the diversification of women's occupation and employment from the case studies, other factors are also important. These are summarised below.

From all the case studies, with the exception of the female bus drivers, 1/ it was found that women who have access to high levels in the conventional education system have an advantage over those who have not had much education. Training for basic industrial skills provided by some institutions such as the Department of Labour, requires

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1/ About half of the female bus drivers in our sample had acquired only 4 years of elementary education.

at least a lower-secondary education. Thus, unless women have access to this level of formal education, they cannot benefit from such training.

There are, however, many industrial occupations at the shop-floor level, which require less formal education and more on-the-job training. Access to employment and on-the-job training in this case is important for helping women who may only complete elementary education to diversify into non-conventional jobs, which will enable them to earn more and improve their life style. Thus, a favourable attitude of employers is important for breaking institutional barriers to women's entry into non-traditional occupations. In Thailand, many professional women find jobs because of the public sector's liberal and open recruitment policy towards women.

As far as future research is concerned, it will be most useful to identify the following:

. in what areas more training for women will be required;
. where in the economy job opportunities for women may be expanded and
. what are the obstacles to women entering these jobs.

Further, in order to find ways to facilitate women's adjustment to new occupations and new roles, it will be useful to carry out an in-depth study of the ways in which women in non-traditional occupations cope with their jobs, their new environment, and their family needs, as well as a study on how their employers, their colleagues, and family members adjust to the women's new occupations.

## Table 1

### Labour Force Participation Rates Female and Male

| Year | Whole Kingdom | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | Total | Female | Male |
| 1972 | 69 | 61 | 71 |
| 1973 | 68 | 60 | 77 |
| 1977 | 71 | 64 | 77 |
| 1978 | 74 | 69 | 78 |
| 1979 | 70 | 65 | 76 |
| 1980 | 73 | 69 | 77 |
| 1981 | 73 | 69 | 78 |
| 1982 | 75 | 71 | 78 |

Source: National Statistical Office, Report of The Labour Force Survey Whole Kingdom July-September, various years.

## Table 2
## Percentage share of women in different occupation (July-Sept. 1973) and (July-Sept. 1983)

| | Municipal | | Non-Municipal | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1973 (%) | 1983 (%) | 1973 (%) | 1983 |
| 1. Professionals | 54.80 | 54.30 | 45.00 | 43.30 |
| 2. Administrators, executive and managers workers | 13.56 | 23.60 | 2.60 | 11.70 |
| 3. Clerical workers | 38.05 | 48.30 | 23.61 | 42.50 |
| 4. Sales workers | 50.88 | 54.30 | 64.68 | 65.70 |
| a) Hawkers, Pedlers and News boys | 64.17 | 64.20 | 69.86 | 73.20 |
| b) Other sales workers. | 45.74 | 53.00 | 62.49 | 61.30 |
| 5. Farmers, fishermen, hunters, miners etc. | 35.35 | 39.90 | 46.38 | 48.00 |
| 6. Workers in transport and communication | 3.28 | 4.80 | 1.24 | 4.40 |
| 7. Craftsman, Production workers and Labours, N.e.c. | 32.50 | 35.00 | 31.79 | 38.40 |
| a) Tailors, dressmakers and related workers | 72.09 | 79.70 | 56.99 | 90.90 |
| b) Carpenters and related workers | 4.19 | 6.10 | 67.63 | 8.90 |
| c) Food-Process and beverage workers | 47.70 | 54.50 | 40.02 | 60.10 |
| d) Labourers | 2.65 | 6.40 | - | 4.30 |
| e) Other Craftsmen and production workers | 25.49 | 24.70 | 34.64 | 35.20 |
| 8. Service, sport and recreation workers | 57.56 | 55.20 | 39.83 | 39.60 |
| 9. Workers not classifiable by occupation | 66.67 | 32.00 | 100.00 | - |

Source: National Statistical Office, Report of the Labour Force Survey, July-Sept. 1973, 1983.

## Table 3.
## Enrollment in the National Institute for Skill Development by Types of Courses and by Sex, Bangkok
## 1985/1986

| Courses Offered | Number of courses | Number of Trainees | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Male | Female | Total |
| Draftsmen | 5 | 79 | 28 | 103 |
| Surveying | 2 | 28 | 2 | 30 |
| Carpentry | 8 | 141 | - | 141 |
| Plumbing | 4 | 67 | - | 67 |
| Motor works and auto repairs | 10 | 379 | - | 379 |
| Cement works | 4 | 47 | - | 47 |
| Paint works | 6 | 125 | - | 125 |
| Electronics | 2 | 95 | 2 | 97 |
| Electrical works | 12 | 394 | - | 396 |
| Metal works | 10 | 448 | - | 448 |
| Total | 63 | 1,803 | 28 | 1,833 |

*/ Including draftsmen in engineering design, architects, advertising.

Source: National Institute for Skill Development, Department of Labour, Bangkok.

## Table 4
## Participants of Seminar/Training in Industrial Techniques, by Sex and Courses Industrial Service Division, Ministry of Industry Fiscal Year 1985 1/

| Courses Offered | Number of Courses offered in 1985 | Number of Trainees | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Male | Female | Total |
| 1. Silk Screen | 9 | 220<br>(72) | 88<br>(29) | 308<br>(100) |
| 2. Wood Work | 4 | 68<br>(91) | 7<br>(9) | 75<br>(100) |
| 3. Plastic Work | | | | |
| - Fiber Glass | 1 | 44<br>(96) | 2<br>(4) | 46<br>(100) |
| - Plastic Mold | 3 | 61<br>(79) | 16<br>(21) | 77<br>(100) |
| 4. Ceramic Ware | 1 | 16<br>(70) | 7<br>(30) | 23<br>(100) |
| 5. Gold Plating, Silver Plating, | 5 | 190<br>(76) | 61<br>(24) | 251<br>(100) |
| 6. Metal Works (iron casting, Plating, molding, Welding and etc.) | 19 | 538<br>(96) | 23<br>(4) | 561<br>(100) |
| 7. Design (furnitures, Plastic Mold and etc.) | 3 | 81<br>(99) | 1<br>(1) | 82<br>(100) |
| 8. Packaging | 1 | 38<br>(58) | 27<br>(42) | 65<br>(100) |
| 9. Processed Food | 1 | 33<br>(70) | 14<br>(30) | 47<br>(100) |
| Total | 47 | 1,289<br>(84) | 246<br>(16) | 1,535<br>(100) |

Note: Figures in parentheses shows the percentage distribution between male and female from the worksheet of the Industrial Service Division.

1/ Data are incomplete.

# CHAPTER V

# SUMMARY OF COUNTRY PAPERS

# SUMMARY COUNTRY REPORT
# INDONESIA

**Sugito Muarief**
**Head of Section for Disabled Employment**
**Department of Manpower**
**Jakarta**

Long before the independence of Indonesia in 1945, there was already a tradition of women having important roles in various fields. Three women in particular, Mrs. Cut Nya'Dien in Aceh, Mrs. Martha Christina Tiahahu in Maluku, and Mrs. Kartini in Java are recognised as emancipation pioneers.

After 1945 when the Constitution of that year, especially Article 27, gave it added stability, women's emancipation developed continuously in all fields of activity. The Constitution outlined the following:

- All citizens without exception, have equal status under the Government's law and administration.
- Every citizen has the right to employment and a good standard of living.

The Indonesian population numbers some 165 million, of which 50.3% are women. However, only 31% of these women is economically active. This is understandable in the light of existing social and cultural factors, which create certain attitudes to women's occupations. Women are still viewed first and foremost as wives and mothers who should not engage in a secondary role of worker outside the home. Whereas, in fact, by performing an active role economically, women would not only contribute to the national development but also improve the living conditions of their families by bringing extra income into the household.

That the Government of Indonesia views this situation seriously is proved by the appointment of a female State Minister for Women's Affairs in the present development cabinet, with the task of coordinating efforts to improve the participation of women.

The National Strategy, and the Decision of the People's Deliberation Council No.: II/MPR/1983, in order to clarify the constitution, stressed the role of women in national development as follows:

- Since national development requires maximum participation of the population in all fields of activity, women have rights, obligations, and opportunities, equal to those of men;
- The role of women in national development, will not decrease their role in the development of the welfare of the family and children;
- To enable women to assume important roles and responsibilities in the development of the nation their knowledge and skills must be developed.

The role of the the Department of Manpower in the light of women's development may be seen as follows:

- To develop a skilled, disciplined, productive, and culturally aware female labour force;
- To develop harmonious, stable, peaceful, and dynamic Pancasila (State Ideology) industrial relations;
- To promote welfare, safety, and health of the female labour force.

Considering the fact that a relatively small percentage of women is economically active, the main programme of the Department of Manpower would be directed at improving the participation of women in the country.

Currently the Department of Manpower has prepared a special programme for the improvement of women's roles in the labour force. The specific aims are the following:

- Assisting working women in combining work and home responsibilities to promote the welfare of the family;
- Improving and developing the role of women in the labour force through widening employment opportunities in various fields of national development;
- Improving and developing the role of women in various fields through education and training;
- Improving their ability and motivation within the social and cultural climate in order to enable women to participate on a larger scale;
- Improving and developing role of women within the frame-work of building a strong Indonesian Nation, based on the state ideology, Pancasila, which promotes fair treatment for all in a prosperous welfare society.

Since more than 80% of the population live in villages, vocational training must be directed at those areas and involve the use of mobile training units.

The Department of Manpower is also implementing cross sectoral programmes to improve female participation based on guidelines given in the Fourth Five-Year Development Plan. Some main measures are listed below:

- Improving employment opportunities for women outside the agricultural sector in rural areas;
- Improving vocational training, productivity, and creating self-employment;

- Improving facilities such as creches at place of work so that women could spend less time out of the labour force because of childbirth;

- Providing continuing education and training for young women already employed.

In rural areas the most suitable industrialisation would be agro-industry involving the production of fertilisers and agricultural equipment, manufacturing capital goods, and processes related to agricultural production. Policies for given areas should take into account natural and human resources and training programmes provided at the village level.

Various associations and women's organisations are actively supporting government policies by conducting education and training programmes, organising seminars , and giving guidance and counselling in various fields.

In 1980 approximately 82.8% of the total Indonesian labour force had elementary school education, compared with 92.95% of women over the age of ten.

Women with junior high school and senior high school education account for 2.73% and 4.03% respectively of the female work force. Educational levels are higher in the urban areas where almost 8% of female workers have graduated from junior high school compared to 1.68% in rural areas. Of the total 16,934,590 women working, only 0.47% in urban areas and 0.12% in rural areas have completed university education. In order to improve the productivity and participation of women in the labour force, education and vocational training must be improved.

Almost 53.73% of female workers are in the agricultural sector. Next in order of importance come the trade, services, and industry sectors, with 18.9%, 12.38%, and 13.06% respectively. The smallest numbers are found in the gas and electricity sectors. Only about 1.08% of women are entrepreneurs. In rural areas, the majority of women are family workers, whereas in the urban areas 46.29% of employed women are working outside the home. This reflects the more formal structure of the urban areas.

The majority of women are involved in managing the household and women's participation within the labour force is influenced by many factors, such as age, educational level, marital status, number of children, and the development of employment opportunities within the economy.

The following measures are currently being taken:

- Organising training for female workers through vocational training centres and mobile training units;
- Organising training programmes in practical management for women with the cooperation of joint business groups;
- Job placement for women after training within the urban areas;
- Job placement for women in rural areas based on the use of existing resources and raw materials in cooperation with joint business groups, while maintaining women's role within the household;
- Promoting the development of cooperative as well as individual efforts, to enhance the productivity of the female labour force.

## Conclusion

- It can be said that the participation level of the female labour force is too low: only half of that of the male labour force. Therefore, the issue of diversification has not yet received government priority and an increase in the FLFPR (female labour force participation) in the Indonesian context is vital.

- Most of women are employed in the low income groups;

- The low participation rate of the female labour force, is not caused by discrimination, since discrimination in Indonesia does not exist (Constitution of 1945);

- Some of the factors causing low participation could be listed as follows:

    - Unavailability of sufficient employment opportunities;
    - Relatively low educational levels of women;
    - Low level of mobility of the female labour force; and
    - Obstacles caused by cultural factors;

- The participation level of women workers in urban areas, at 24%, is far below that in rural areas, although the educational level is higher. This disparity can be explained by the existance in rural areas of part-time and other incidental jobs unavailable in the urban areas and which do not conflict with household duties;

- Funds for organising extension services to aid the development of entrepreneurship and cooperatives are very limited;

- Through the establishment of joint business groups, the process of creating new employment opportunities could be accelerated.

# SUMMARY COUNTRY REPORT
# JAPAN

**Kiyoko Fujii**
**Director**
**Women's Welfare Division**
**Women's Bureau**
**Ministry of Labour**
**Tokyo**

## TRENDS AND EMPLOYMENT SITUATION OF FEMALE EMPLOYEES

### Trends and Prospects of Female Employment

Regardless of the period of recession, the female labour force has been steadily increasing at a higher rate than the male labour force since 1976 and totaled 23.67 million in 1985. This is 39.7% of the total labour force at that date. Increase can be seen in the ratio of the female labour force in each age group, except among the very young and very old, forming a M-shaped curve with the 30-34 age group at its bottom, and with the 20-24 and 40-44 age groups at the two peaks.

While the number of female employees conspicuously increased in accordance with the high growth of the Japanese economy, it continued to increase during the stable growth period at a higher rate than that of male employees, totalling 15.48 million in 1985 which was 35.9% of the total number of employees.

Female employment, with young and middle-age married women at the core, is expected to increase further in the future due to (1) the reduction of burdens such as housework and childcare, (2) the increased opportunities for part-time employment due to the shift towards a service economy; (3) the increased opportunities for re-employment due to changes in life style, and (4) the slowing down of income increase within household. Aging of the labour force is also anticipated.

The female labour force in the past has shown a tendency to withdraw from the labour market at times of economic recession and to re-enter at times of business booms. In recent years, however, this clear sensitivity to the state of the economy has disappeared, and women now remain as unemployed members of the labour market.

## EXPANSION OF THE FIELDS OF EMPLOYMENT OF WOMEN AND DIVERSIFICATION OF EMPLOYMENT PATTERNS

The Japanese economy has been transferred from a high growth era into a stable growth era, and the industrial structure has undergone a series of changes. With developments in high technology-intensive industries and information-related industries based on rapid technological innovations, the number of female employees is increasing in a wide range of occupations.

### By Industries

In 1975, the largest number of female employees was employed in the manufacturing industry, followed by the service industry, the wholesale and retail trade industry, and the catering services. In 1985, however, the largest number of female employees was seen in the service industry, followed by the manufacturing industry, the wholesale and retail trade industry, and the catering services. More than 80% of the total employees were concentrated in these fields.

Examination of the increased rate of female employees by industry, for the 10 years following 1975, shows the highest increase in the real estate industry followed by increase rates in the service industry, the wholesale and retail trade industry, and the catering services. The ratio of female workers increased in every industry except for forestry.

## By Occupation

As regards the types of occupation of female employees, clerical and related workers have the largest share of female employees at one-third, followed by craftworkers, production process workers, professional and technical employees.

The ratio of clerical and related employees was constant and the ratios of craftworkers, production process employees, declined in the 10 years following 1975. In comparison, however, the ratio of professional and technical employees increased.

Based on groups of occupational classification the major occupations in which the number of female employees increased to more than double in 10 years were information processing technicians, pharmacists, social and welfare workers. A pronounced increase was also evident in the categories of professional and technical employees, operators of electronic machinery, clerical and related employees, semi-conductor products makers, craftworkers, and production process workers.

The ratio of female employees by occupation is more than 60% for service employees such as beauticians and waitresses. The ratio for clerical employees exceeds 50% for other occupations.

Although the ratio for female managers is less than 10%, this had increased by 3.2% during the 10 years between 1975 and 1985.

Looking at occupations the rate of increase of female employees is particularly noticeable among professional and technical employees such as information processing technicians, reporters, editors, and professional sportswomen.Clerical and related workers, operators of electronic machinery have also shown a conspicuous increase, reflecting an advancement of the application of micro-electronics. As regards the increase of female craftworkers, production process workers and labourers, those related to the advanced industries i.e. electronic machines assemblers and repairworkers, and optical instruments assemblers are especially noticeable.

## Diversification of Employment Patterns

While the number of female employees is increasing in various industries and occupations, new employment patterns such as "dispatched workers" and homeworkers have now appeared, in addition to the increased number of part-time employees due to change of the employment patterns. This in turn has been caused by the advancement of the service economy, the application of micro-electronics, and the increasing number of middle-aged employees.

Part-time female employees have increased at a higher rate than that of the total number of female employees, accounting for slightly more than 20% of the total number of female workers in 1985. The wholesale and retail trade industry and catering services have the largest number of part-time female employees, followed by the service industry and the manufacturing industry. They account for about 90% of total female part-time employees.

At present, "dispatched" workers are mainly seen in the information processing, clerical, building management, and security fields. With the enforcement of the "Law for Securing Proper Operation of Workers' Dispatching Undertakings and Improvement of Working Conditions of Dispatched Workers" of July, 1986, the number of female "dispatched workers" in these business fields is expected to increase in the future.

## Vocational Training

With the background of a lifetime employment practice the rate of firms conducting vocational training is high in Japan, with almost 100% of large companies and 90% of small plants implementing in-plant training.

The central and prefectural governments have implemented the following measures to contribute to economic and social development through improving and stabilising the conditions of the labour force.

a) Technical and financial assistance for promotion of human resources within firms;

b) Vocational training for the unemployed women wishing to change jobs, new graduates, workers in small firms, and the handicapped;

c) Provision of an evaluation system of occupational abilities.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Law stipulates that employers shall not discriminate against female workers in basic education and training and would provide skills necessary for their jobs. Also, with the expansion of the employment sector the number of employers making efforts to develop the education and training of female workers has increased especially in fields such as finance, information processing and sales.

The number of female trainees in public vocational training increased from 8.4% in 1975 to 35.7% in capability development. The ratio for female trainees is higher in fields like accounting, clerical work, tracing, and dressmaking than in technical courses although, here too, numbers have been increasing.

In order to further promote development of the female labour force the following steps must be taken. First, efforts should be made to secure equal opportunities and treatment as stipulated by the Equal Employment Opportunity Law, and secondly, efforts should be made to improve vocational training to meet the needs of women workers.

## Infrastructural Support

The number of women seeking employment is increasing but these women often have no previous work experience, lack employment information, and do not have the necessary skills. Assistance is provided by women's employment assistance centres and by welfare centres for working women. The former conduct courses, give counselling and guidance, and assist in finding employment. The latter, set up by local governments, also provide skill training courses as well as providing counselling services and providing leisure and recreation facilities.

## Creation of Awareness of Problems and Opportunities Related to Women's Entry into Labour Force

In order to expand employment opportunities of female workers, it is necessary to improve the awareness of both men and women and to promote social trends correcting stereotyped ways of thinking about their respective roles.

The government is therefore promoting enlightenment through public relations activities such as "Women's Week"; "Equal Employment Opportunity Month"; and is organising activities for employers' organisations and trade unions, whenever possible.

# SUMMARY COUNTRY REPORT KOREA

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The number of economically active women in Korea has increased by 3.1% over the last decade from 38.5% in 1970 to 41.6% in 1983. Regarding the employment structure of women, 30.1% of the total female labour are employed in primary industry, with 24.5% in mining and manufacturing, and 46.9% in tertiary industry. These rates show that those employed in primary industry decreased by 27.1% over the last 15 years, and those employed in the manufacturing industry and tertiary industry increased by 10.8% and 16.3% respectively. Age distribution shows a decrease in the 14 to 24 age group and an increase in the 25 to 54 age group.

The role of women in society is rapidly expanding with the growth of industrialisation, and women have been contributing to economic growth since 1960. With the shift from a labour intensive system to a more technical one, the quality and skills of the labour force has been changing.

In the past, the majority of women workers were unmarried and under 29 years old, but there has been a pronounced increase in participation of older married women. Another noticeable trend is that towards longer terms of service. Formerly, women workers worked only until they got married. However, the number of women workers serving for more than 5 years increased from 8% in 1981 to 13.5% in 1985.

There has also been a rapid increase of women workers with a high educational background. Further, vocational training is becoming increasingly important to the development of employment opportunities for women.

Public vocational training implemented by the government and the Korean Vocational Training Management Agency (KOVIMA) leads the development of vocational training in the country and provides those conducting in-plant training with necessary assistance. KOVIMA was established in 1982 to promote efficient vocational training through research and development of technical qualification tests.

Various industries have been designated for in-plant training, namely mining, manufacturing, electricity, gas and water, construction, transportation, warehousing, communication, and services. Any plant in the obligatory fields with more than 300 regular employees is required to conduct in-plant training. Employers not wishing to conduct in-plant training must pay a training levy to the vocational training promotion fund.

In Korea, there are currently 79 public vocational training institutes, 164 in-plant training institutes, and 61 authorised training institutes. In these training facilities, the number of women trainees is 9.057, or 16.4% of the total training capacity. In the KOVIMA facilities there are only 380 female trainees or 2.7% of total training capacity.

Many women already receive in-plant training or attend authorised training institutes. However, the skill level of public vocational training institutes is often higher than that of in-plant training or authorised institutes. This means the level of female vocational training is relatively low in comparison with that of men. Another problem is that vocational training is concentrated in several fields such as electronics, textiles, and knitting.

In order to improve women's vocational training, the government has a plan to establish in 1987 a women's vocational training institute, under the auspices of the Korean Vocational Training and Management Agency. This will be the first womens' vocational training institute. It will provide a basic training course for non-skilled women and an up-grading course for women who already have basic skills. Furthermore, the institute will also study policies concerning vocational training; collect and analyse technical information; develop specific curricula; and generally give guidance and counselling. Courses offered will include training in industrial design, interior decoration, and printing.

Taking in to account the physical and physiological distinctions of female workers, the Ministry of Labour has implemented the following provisions to protect them:

. Women may not be engaged in employment which is detrimental to health;

. Women are not permitted to work underground;

. Overtime may not exceed two hours a day, six hours a week and women may not work between 10 pm and 6 am or on holidays without authorisation by the Ministry of Labour;

. Female workers are allowed sixty days maternity leave with pay and thirty days with pay after the birth of a child;

. Female workers with infants under one year of age are allowed two thirty minute breaks per day for nursing.

Wage discrimination still exists and the average wage for women workers is only 47.8% of that of male workers. This is due to the differences in occupation, educational background, and length of service. The government is making efforts to reduce this difference and promote equal opportunities in employment and promotion.

In principal, men and women have equal opportunities when it comes to education and vocational training. However, in fact, women are at a disadvantage because some institutes offer curricula in fields better suited to men. Therefore, the government is promoting more suitable training programmes to take advantage of the increasing numbers of women wishing to enter the labour force. In Korea, the assumption is that certain types of occupations are more suitable for women: i.e. monitoring programming, designing, counselling, and decorating for those with a good educational background, and painting, tiling, printing, and keypunching for those women with lower education.

In 1985, the Korean Women's Development Institute drew up guidelines to abolish discrimination against women, improve participation, and develop the potential of female workers. These guidelines were adopted by a deliberative council for women's policies, and hopefully these will be implemented in the near future or be used as a basis for long-term action. The guidelines are itemised as follows:

- Women with equal educational background and equal potential should have equal employment opportunities;
- Centres should be established to provide information exclusively related to female employment;
- Part-time employment for women should be promoted;
- Women should be encouraged to aim for administrative and professional positions;
- A watchdog council should be set up to enforce the prohibition of discrimination;
- Emphasis should shift from simple skills to multi-skills training in vocational programmes;
- Courses improving understanding of and attitudes to women should be included in training within industry;
- The government should promote the development of curricula and occupations in order to increase the re-employment of married women;

- Infrastructural facilities such as dormitories and nursing facilities should be provided at existing vocational institutes;
- A study of the retirement age for women should be made;
- Social support should be given to ensure long-term employment;
- Provisions should be initiated to deal fairly with the problem of menstruation leave;
- Arrangements for leave of absence related to childbirth should be systemised;
- The leave of absence should not be used as a pretext for discrimination in employment.

One main obstacle as far as women's employment is concerned, is the lack of understanding about the characteristic of women workers, while another is that the supply of women exceeds the demand of the labour force.

The government should encourage employers to abolish discrimination against women in employment, and promote the employment of women through education or vocational training.

The Ministry of Labour has made special provisions for improving the working conditions of women. For example, no female worker shall be authorised to engage in any work detrimental to morality or harmful to health. An employer shall allow a pregnant female worker sixty days leave with pay, and more than thirty days maternity leave with pay after the birth of the child. The government also has a plan to provide infrastructural support, namely to establish five nursery facilities near industrial complexes within three years, and to encourage employers to set up their own nursery facilities on the premises.

# SUMMARY COUNTRY REPORT MALAYSIA

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According to the Population and Housing Census of 1980, approximately half of the 13.7 million population of Malaysia were women. It also indicates that women's participation in the labour force increased from 926,217 in 1970 to 1,371,800 in 1980.

The Malaysian Government is keenly aware of the importance of the role of women in the development of the country, and women are recognised as important in human resource development. Today, we can find successful women who are holding important positions in fields which were once dominated by men. Presently we have a female cabinet minister, a deputy minister, a parliamentary secretary, a high court judge and even pilot trainees in the Royal Malaysian Air Force. These achievements are due to persistent efforts made by the women themselves as well as the equal opportunities given by the government regardless of sex or status.

Since 1982, a new government department (HAWA), headed by a female deputy minister, has been promoting the participation of women in plans for national development.

Its functions and responsibilities include monitoring of implemented policies and projects, organising training courses and seminars, promoting the participation of businesswomen in trade missions abroad, and setting up a centre to provide voluntary counselling services.

## WOMEN IN EMPLOYMENT

With the change in the Malaysian economy from dependence on primary industries such as agriculture and mining to emphasis on manufacturing and services, there has been a shift of manpower from subsistence agriculture to wage labour and a corresponding rise in the demand for women workers in both the manufacturing and public sector.

In rural areas, women's contribution towards agricultural production is more pronounced in rubber and oil palm estates, the two major production sectors. Working mainly as tappers and weeders, they earn wages equal to those as their male counterparts. Due to a decline in rubber prices, there has been a migration of agricultural workers to urban areas and the industrial sector. According to the Labour Force Survey of 1980, there was a big drop in female workers in the plantation sector from 63.1% to 40.2% in the period 1980 to 1983.

This migratory trend has prompted government action in the form of plans to boost employment opportunities in the agricultural sector by setting-up local industry to process rubber and oil-palm products and to stem the flow of workers to the urban areas.

In the manufacturing industry, where women are employed mainly as unskilled workers with limited career opportunities, the number of female workers increased from 11.5% in 1980 to 20.7% in 1983, with the majority employed in the electronic sector. Here, the number of the women in the workforce increased to 52,892 in 1983 from 26,142 in 1977, with most employed as production operators. This is one industry where female workers outnumber males, mainly because of the nature of the work which benefits from feminine patience and delicacy. Women earn more than their male counterparts who are mainly employed as engineers, maintenance men, and mechanics.

The second largest employer of women is the textile industry. In 1983, approximately 15,985 out of a total of 24,479 workers were women, employed mainly in the threading and yarning sections.

In the heavier industries such as mining and quarrying, construction, transportation, and utilities, few women have been employed due to the nature of work which is still considered less suitable for women. Men hold down 85.1% of jobs in mining and quarrying, 94.2% in transportation, 94.7% in electricity and gas, and 92% in construction.

The public sector employs the highest female work force in the country. In 1983, although there were 14,046 women in the professional and managerial category (82% of the total women in this category), most of them were in the teaching and nursing professions. In the fields of medicine, law, and architecture, the involvement of women is also very encouraging, though numbers are not yet significant.

Generally speaking, most female workers are still found in the semi-skilled category, with only moderate numbers in professional and technical fields and with unsatisfactory participation (0.4%) in management and administration. This situation requires improvement.

## WOMEN IN TRAINING

Women in Malaysia have always been provided with equal opportunities to pursue formal education up to the university level, although female students may prefer to take up studies and training in teaching and other feminine occupations.

There are a number of agencies which are directly involved and responsible for training women. These are the Ministry of Education, the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of Social Welfare, the Ministry of Youth, Culture and Sport, and other semi-government agencies.

According to statistics in the period from 1982 to 1985, of 11,720 students trained at technical schools 35% were female, and of 22,088 students at vocational schools 42% were female.

Most of the female students enrolling in technical and vocational schools, prefer to take courses such as commerce and domestic science. The number of female students majoring in science and technical studies in the universities is still small, and the majority of female students follow the arts and humanities streams. The reluctance of women to undergo training and break into male dominated trades is largely caused by prevailing attitudes of employers that certain types of employment are not suitable for women.

The Industrial Training Institute, under the auspices of the Department of Manpower in the Ministry of Labour, has been set up to meet the demand for skilled workers in the building and construction fields, with courses designed to provide basic industrial skills and to up-grade existing skills. Since the courses involve training at construction site, female students appear to prefer to take courses in printing and electrical skills which are conducted indoors. Of the female trainees at the institute, approximately 50% are in printing and only 5% in electronics (domestic industries).

The same situation occurs at the Centre for Instructors and Advanced Skill Training (CIAST) where female students prefer to train in printing. This centre was primarily formed to train instructors for technical schools in the public and private sectors.
Other agencies are facing the same problem of females preferring to take courses in commerce and domestic sciences.

On the whole, it may be said that training in this country satisfies the immediate survival needs of women, rather than the demands of the labour market.

## IMPROVEMENTS IN WORKING CONDITIONS

There have been marked improvements in the working conditions of women in government service:

- equality of pay;
- permanent and pensionable status regardless of marital status

- option of retirement at age at 45 and retirement at 55;
- unpayed leave to accompany spouse undertaking overseas training;
- maternity leave of 42 days with full pay.

Conditions in the private sector are less satisfactory. There is no legislation for equal pay. However, the following provisions have been made:

- maternity leave benefits of 60 days;
- women are not allowed to work between 10 pm and 5 am without prior approval by the Ministry of Labour;
- women are prohibited from working underground.

## CONCLUSION

Despite achievements by Malaysian women in recent years, they are still under-represented in the skilled and high-earning categories but over-represented in the unskilled and low-income groups. This is due to the nature of training given to women in this country, which leads to low participation of women in managerial, professional, and technical employment.

In the government sector, where women get equal pay, they are accepted in all categories but the percentage is insignificant (only 7% in 1982). In the professional and technical fields, the majority of women are in nursing or teaching.

The number of women in the legal, medical, and engineering fields is on the increase as traditional attitudes slowly change, but participation in the private sector still lags way behind that in the government sector.

To overcome the shortage of female participation at the technical and professional levels, the following steps have been taken:

- Increasing the number of teacher training institutions and, as interim measure, recruiting qualified teachers from abroad;

- Reviewing the effectiveness of vocational training for women;

- Encouraging females to study scientific, technical, and managerial subjects at all levels;

- Including in the curriculum for both sexes, in addition to a general education, subjects like industrial and agricultural science, economics, nutrition, and health. All programmes, curricula, and standards of education and training are the same for males and females.

With the increase of women being trained in skills at tertiary and university levels, improved performance by female workers will become evident within the labour force.

# SUMMARY COUNTRY REPORT
# PHILIPPINES

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**Manila**

## NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT SITUATION

In July 1986, fifty-one percent, or 17.4 million of the 34 million working population over 15 years of age, were women. Ten million or 52 percent of them were found in rural areas, and 7 million in urban areas. Of the total labour force of 21.9 million, 7.9 million or 36.1 percent, were female.

A decline in the level of employment suffered by the country since 1983, due to the foreign exchange crisis, was specifically felt in the manufacturing sector where the majority of women were found. In times of an economic crisis, studies show that women are the first to be laid off and the last to be hired. Data in 1986 placed unemployed women at around 888,000 as against 7,055,000 employed women. By comparison, 1.600,000 of men were unemployed against 12.400,000 employed in the same period.

The majority of working women were employed in agriculture (33.9%); community, social, and personal services (26.9%), and in the wholesale and retail trades (24.0%). These are considered "traditional occupations" for women. An insignificant number were engaged in traditionally classified "male jobs" such as mining and quarrying (1%); electricity, gas and water (0.2%), and in construction (0.2%).

## TRAINING IN THE PHILIPPINES

While no discrimination exists in terms of access to education and training, women are generally interested in traditionally "female jobs". In training courses, only a few women are enroled in welding, electricity, drafting and silk screen printing while the majority cluster in service type fields.

Available data reveals that women trainees are mostly found in non-formal education programmes organised by the Government. This may be the case as most of the programmes were designed mainly for women, especially disadvantaged women. In the organised sector and unionised establishments, women are trained by their respective labour organisations on matters like labour laws, workers' rights and privileges. Training programmes for rural women are carried out by the regional manpower and training centres of the NMYC and other institutions.

With regard to training-staff, especially in the education ministry, women constitute more than half of the personnel. However, only 19 of 45 decision-making positions were occupied by women during 1983-1984. Training officers in the government, however, are mostly women. The same holds true in the private sector where the human resource development units of most firms are staffed by women. However, in areas where highly technical and specialised skills are involved male instructors still dominate.

## NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT AND TRAINING POLICIES FOR WOMEN

The equal right of women to training is anchored in two major sets of policies. These are the following: (1) the broad policy statements embodied in the Philippine Constitution of 1973, which is further emphasised in the proposed Constitution of the Philippines in 1986, the National Development Plans and Strategies, the UN Plan of Action for the Integration of Women in Development as well as the enabling policy instruments embodied in Letters of Instruction 974 and 1066; and (2) the specific policies affecting mainly women workers embodied in the Presidential Decree 442, otherwise known as the Labour Code of the Philippines. These policies may be grouped into two major categories a) policies for the promotion of women's employment and participation in income-generating activities and b) policies for the protection of women workers and the improvement of their working conditions including organisation, particularly unionisation, of working women.

The training of women workers is included in the government's policy to develop manpower resources. While there seems to be a lack of explicit policy for this training, it must not be construed as lack of concern or discrimination. The government has adopted an egalitarian view of human resources and women, therefore have to be trained in accordance with the national training priorities.

Side by side with employment policies, a number of protective measures ensuring favourable conditions for women have been promulgated.

Concern for women's welfare was made explicit in the proposed New Constitution of the Philippine Republic. Similarly, the Philippine Development Plan for 1987 to 1992 safeguards the right of women to equal opportunities and treatment.

The primary government agency in the Philippines, charged with the welfare and protection of women workers, is the Bureau of Women and Minors (BWM). It performs advisory functions for the Ministry of Labour and Employment in the administration and enforcement of laws relating to women workers. In 1973, the BMW drafted a law abolishing discrimination against employment of married women and providing protection for married and pregnant workers. It also led to the integration of maternity leave benefits within the Social Security System.

## INSTITUTIONAL STRUCTURES FOR WOMEN'S TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

The government has exerted efforts to promote and generate employment opportunities for both men and women through the acceleration of work placement, locally and overseas, and the development of manpower for an effective balance between labour supply and demand. Government agencies undertaking employment programmes are likewise conducting training programmes.

In the private sector, labour or workers' organisations and private institutions are also participating in the country's human resource development programmes.

## TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT PROGRAMMES FOR WOMEN WORKERS

To enhance the full participation of women in employment through training, several innovations are being undertaken. These are the restructuring of the school curriculum emphasising non-discrimination between the sexes; the promotion of functional education for the illiterate, unskilled, and those suffering from various forms of deprivation; the provision of scholarship programmes and educational loans; the intensification of information dissemination campaigns aimed at encouraging women to engage in non-traditional courses; and establishment of additional provincial and city training centres and mobile training programmes aimed at expanding the coverage of agricultural and industrial skills training.

As regards employment programmes for women, the following steps have been taken:

- the establishment of employment exchange centres to strengthen employment promotion and development efforts through comprehensive monitoring of existing jobs, and to facilitate the effective matching of skills and job vacancies;

- upgrading of skills through apprenticeship and training programmes;

- establishment of linkages between government and private agencies involved in employment promotion;

- the promotion of career counselling through an employment guidance service designed to match individual aptitudes of job-seekers with the occupational demand in the labour market; and

- the strengthening of overseas employment.

## FACTORS HINDERING WOMEN'S FULL PARTICIPATION IN TRAINING AND EMPLOYMENT

There are four obvious factors which hinder women's full participation in training and employment in the Philippines. One is the deep-seated notion that women's place is in the home and her economic role is secondary to that of men. This view is exacerbated by the attitudes of women themselves that any involvement in non-domestic activities competes with the demands of their traditional domestic roles. Another factor is the limited employment opportunities available for women. Some legislation designed to protect women have prove to influence negatively their employment. Moreover, in times of economic crisis women are most likely the first to be laid off. Inadequate and ineffective implementation and monitoring of existing policies is also one of the factors contributing to low participation rates of women in training and employment. Lastly, the lack of awareness on the part of women of existing opportunities and their rights contributes to their low participation in labour unions and other organisations.

## CONCLUSION

As women's employment hinges on the type and level of education they have acquired, emphasis must be given to reviewing the present educational system and manpower development policies. Programmes should be designed to equip women with the necessary competencies to obtain jobs with higher levels of responsibility and pay. Massive information and awareness campaigns must be instituted to combat traditional attitudes, eliminate sex-stereotyping, inform and educate workers on their rights and privileges and promote the idea that women and men are equal partners in development. Policies on apprenticeship and training must also be reviewed in the light of prevailing exploitation against apprentices and trainees.

Diversifying women's training and employment in a wider range of occupations must be given emphasis by development planners. Some recommended programme areas would include the promotion of rural employment; provision of opportunities in self-employment, entrepreneurship development; expansion of the training infrastructure to the provincial level; establishment of manpower exchange centres in strategic urban areas; development of new apprenticeship programmes through the rehabilitation of existing training centres and the establishment of special training centres for high technology.

# SUMMARY COUNTRY REPORT
# THAILAND

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In addition to the traditional role of wife and mother, Thai women have always played a vital role in the agricultural based economy of the country, working side by side with their men in the paddy fields. This situation still exists especially in the rural areas, but Thai women today enjoy a wide range of career opportunities. The factors contributing to the change in roles are the impact of economic necessity, educational and vocational training opportunities, changing attitudes towards sex roles, and national planning and policies for women's development over the last 15 years. Cleary recognised in the Fourth Five-Year Development Plan was the importance of developing women's participation in the economy. This became a major concern in the Fifth Plan.

The Plan outlined the following issues affecting women in socio-economic participation:

- Distribution of female labour with 41.9% employed in agriculture and with a low level of education;
- High illiteracy rate of women;
- Problems of health and nutrition for pregnant women;
- Low degree of acceptance in employment.

The Plan aimed at women workers from 38 provinces, considered to be the poorest areas in the country. Measures were aimed at promoting women in employment, education, public health, politics, and administration.

In 1981, the National Commission on Women's Affairs presented a Twenty-Year Plan (1982 - 2001) which is aimed at women's development. This plan provides a series of indicators which may used in policy formation and evaluation.

The Sixth Development Plan (1987 - 1991) covers three basic principles for women's development. These are:

- Conformation to objectives and directions stated in the Twenty-Year Plan for Women's Development;
- Continuation of women's development programmes specified in the Fifth Development Plan;
- Improvement of the quality of the labour force and development of required manpower.

The Sixth Development Plan is different from previous ones in the sense that it analyses changes in the social and economic structure, estimates future requirements, and sets up development measures to cope with changes and demands. Four major programmes to the benefit of women are to be implemented. These are:

- Improvement of the quality of life of women;
- Promotion of equality and social security;
- Promotion of women's status;
- Promotion of mechanisms for women's development.

Generally speaking, these programmes provide worthwhile guidelines for women's development. However, when it comes to implementation, many constraints are found such as shortage of funds, lack of trained personnel, and lack of understanding by trainees. Furthermore, many programmes cannot be enforced by law.

With the Primary Education Act of 1921, women were assured equal education opportunities at that level, and today women have access to the highest levels of education if they have the required entry qualifications.

Currently women receive formal education from primary to tertiary levels at institutions under the Ministry of Education and Ministry of Universities' Affairs, and at private schools and colleges. For non-formal education, many short courses in vocational training, income generating, and improvement of quality of life are organised by various ministries.

Though women tend to choose courses such as home economics and business/commerce, more have begun to enroll in trade and industry, agriculture, and engineering, fields that were formerly male dominated.

In theory women have equal employment opportunities, but in practice access to higher levels of employment is difficult because employers still prefer men to women except in specialised types of work. Many educational and employment problems still remain to be solved in the development of women's opportunities.

The Department of Labour is responsible for organising vocational and on-the-job training in close cooperation with factories and industrial firms, offering pre-employment training and up-grading of existing skills. All training is generally carried out at national institutes for skill development of which there are seven at present. About 15,000 young people and skilled workers attend the courses yearly. The majority of these trainees are male.

The women's development programmes of the Community Development Department correspond to measures outlined by the Fifth Development Plan, but the emphasis is mainly on the development of women in rural areas. Programmes include vocational training for income generation leadership promotion, and encouragement in creating women's organisations. Rural vocational training mainly includes weaving, basketry and traditional crafts. The Division gets financial support for its work from the government and also from foreign aid. Training programmes for women are also offered by the Office of Rural Development, Department of Public Welfare, Ministry of Public Health, and Ministry of Agriculture and Cooperatives.

Several divisions of the Ministry of Industry provide vocational training related to the textile industries, handicraft promotion, cottage industries, and industrial productivity. These courses attract a number of women who benefit from learning design and marketing, and are able to become economically productive. Vocational training is also provided by many private agencies in the country.

Thai women certainly have much better employment opportunities today than they had in the past. Women are to be found in many new fields including politics, but they are still very much in the minority, especially at administrative and executive levels. Participation in the teaching field is equal to that of men, but very few women of the many employed within government service reach administrative or executive levels.

According to statistics, (Table I refers) the greatest number of women are employed in agriculture followed by commerce, services, and manufacturing. The work force in the agricultural sector is dominated by female labourers with low levels of education who are also responsible for taking care of their families.

In the industrial sector women make up at least 40% of the total workforce. Most of them are employed in the manufacturing industries such as textiles, garments, food processing, and electronic parts production. However, a large number of women are also working in the construction, chemical, and metal industries. Women employed in this sector have many problems in regard to wages, promotion opportunities, accommodation, job security, negotiating power, and adjustment to a new working environment.

The service sector employs large numbers of women mainly in hotels, restaurants and massage parlours.

Statistics show that there is higher employment among women than men, in the case of those being employed for the first time. However, there is higher unemployment among men than women who have had previous employment. Women in general have a higher unemployment rate than men.

There are many constraints in the education/training and employment opportunities of women. Some problems which require an urgent solution are listed below:

## Education and Training

- High illiteracy rate among women;
- Lack of basic knowledge about health, consumption habits, family planning, child rearing, legal rights, etc;
- Lack of opportunity to acquire education and training among certain groups of women (i.e. drop-outs, the rural poor, minority groups, women in special occupations, etc.);
- Lack of safe accommodation for female students being educated away from home;
- Unchanged attitudes of parents and public in regard to areas of study and employment considered suitable for females;
- Insufficient data on occupations, education, and drop-outs;
- Lack of coordination among agencies involved in women's development.

## Employment

- Women still have fewer employment opportunities than men;
- Social values still regard male workers as being more skilled, more emotionally stable, and more dedicated to work;
- Women have few opportunities of employment at higher levels;
- Women in rural areas have few employment opportunities;
- Prevailing attitudes are against women working far away from home;
- Employers often prefer men to women as indicated in advertising of employment openings;
- Women often receive lower pay than men for doing the same work;
- Men provide little support in promoting equality of women in employment.

In conclusion, it can be said that Thai women nowadays have wider opportunities in education and training, though they tend to chose those areas which they think offer the best chances of employment and deem most suitable for their physical abilities. Many organisations both governmental and non-governmental offer diversified training programmes, both formal and non-formal. Although, in theory, women have equal opportunities in access to employment, in practice many employers still prefer male workers except for jobs which require neatness and feminine skill and accuracy. Women labourers normally receive lower wages and, as a whole, Thai society remains male orientated.

## Employed Persons by Industry and Sex, in Whole Kingdom, 1982

| Industry | Total | Male | Female |
|---|---|---|---|
| Agriculture, Forestry, Hunting | 9,603,600 | 5,295,600 | 4,307,900 |
| Mining and Quarrying | 102,300 | 65,600 | 36,700 |
| Manufacturing | 2,737,600 | 1,347,500 | 1,057,100 |
| Construction Repair and Demolition | 731,600 | 623,000 | 108,500 |
| Electricity, Gas, Water and Sanitary Services | 65,900 | 56,500 | 9,300 |
| Commerce | 2,407,000 | 1,069,000 | 1,337,000 |
| Transport, Storage and Communication | 554,900 | 500,100 | 44,700 |
| Services | 2,529,400 | 1,392,200 | 1,137,100 |
| Activities not Adequately Described | 2,400 | 2,300 | 100 |
| Total | 18,392,700 | 10,352,600 | 8,040,000 |

Source: Report of the Labour Force Survey in Whole Kingdom Round 1 (January - March) 1982, National Statistical Office.

# CHAPTER VI

# SUMMARY OF PAPERS BY WORKERS' REPRESENTATIVES

# SUMMARY OF PAPERS BY WORKERS' REPRESENTATIVES
# JAPAN

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**Tokyo**
**and**
**Kiyoko Kumazaki, Director,**
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**Tokyo**

## AN OVERIVEW OF THE PROBLEMS AS SEEN BY WORKERS AND THEIR ORGANISATIONS

The factors affecting occupational segregation and diversification of women's occupations in a broader range of jobs at higher levels of skills' responsibility and pay are twofold:

- In order to widen the range of employment for themselves, women workers should not confine themselves to occupational fields traditionally preserved for women but advance to a broader range of jobs, and should encourage themselves to engage in higher posts to take advantage of the increased chances of promotion and upgrading.
- At the same time, improvement is urgently needed in working conditions in the traditional occupation fields where wages have been fix at a low levels and working conditions have been poor.

## WORKERS' VIEWS ON THE IMPACT OF TECHNOLOGY ON WOMEN'S WORK, TRAINING NEEDS, AND EMPLOYMENT OPPORTUNITIES

With the introduction of new technology, automation has taken over jobs previously occupied by women both in the factories and offices, and thus employment opportunities for women have been reduced.

It is necessary that women have equal opportunities and undergo adequate training to cope with new technologies. Also women should be encouraged to take-up training for the new technological requirements.

## WORKERS' VIEWS ON OCCUPATIONS WHICH COULD BE OPENED TO WOMEN

It is urged that women should partake in every field of work, especially newly created jobs. In view of the fact that the trend has been to give men the first opportunity to undergo training, it is also necessary that the government should take measures, including the enactment of law and regulations, to give priority to women to undergo training and prepare themselves for such new jobs and work fields.

## MEASURES AND INITIATIVES TAKEN BY WORKERS AND THEIR ORGANISATIONS TO DIVERSIFY WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS

The trade unions in Japan had been demanding that the government legislate that employers give equal treatment women when recruiting and hiring employees. This is now provided for under the Equal Employment Opportunity Law since April 1, 1986.

This Law also stipulates that equality between and women should be exercised in respect to education and training provided by enterprises.

## FACTORS WHICH FACILITATE OR CONSTRAIN INITIATIVES OF WORKERS' ORGANISATIONS TO DIVERSIFY WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS

Association and cooperation with women's organisations may contribute to workers' initiatives; however, changes in the economic situation and prevailing unemployment may influence employers against employing women.

## TYPES OF POLICIES AND MEASURES WHICH COULD BE SUPPORTED AND PROMOTED BY WORKERS' ORGANISATIONS TO DIVERSIFY WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS

- Ways and means to be sought to encourage workers' organisations to promote a wider range of on-the-job training for women, and at higher levels of skill and responsibility.

- A movement should be promoted to remove any prejudice against women existing at workplaces and foster enlightenment.

- A movement should be organised to convince women that their wages and positions could be promoted through upgrading their occupational skills.

- Ways and means to be sought to encourage workers to facilitate recruitment of women in non-traditional occupations.

- Improvement of machinery and functions of the personnel employment security offices which are to practice appropriate job placement.

- Provision of information on occupations and the labour market.

## MEANS OF COLLABORATION BETWEEN GOVERNMENT, EMPLOYERS' AND WORKERS' ORGANISATIONS TO DIVERSIFY WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS

During their childhood and throughout their school education women should be exposed to a wider range of occupations to make them aware of wider choice of options. Vocational education equal to boys should be provided to girls at junior and senior schools, and the option to select science and engineering when entering college or university should be given and encourage for girls. In other words, school education should be more adapted to the realities of working life. In this context, the diversification issue should be widely and thoroughly discussed within a tripartite forum.

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Machinery should be set up to enable the government and workers' organisations to discuss the promotion of workers' occupational abilities, and female workers representatives must be included in discussions. The area to review should include training content, curriculum, venue, type of occupation, recruitment methods and facilities of government-sponsored programmes.

In order to help women more easily attend any retraining programme and prepare themselves for new jobs, adequate consideration must be paid to the provision of training allowances, dormitories, and other facilities including nurseries.

# SUMMARY OF PAPERS BY WORKERS' REPRESENTATIVES
# MALAYSIA

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**Petaling Jaya**

The Malaysian Trade Union Congress, the National Centre/Trade Unions in Malaysia, represents unions in the private sector, statutory bodies, local authorities, and the civil service.

The right to employment is a fundamental right of all human beings and, therefore, of women without restriction. All men and women should have equal access to work, professions, vocational training, further training, and promotion. So long as any part of the labour force suffers disadvantages and discrimination, and the fruits of common labour are not fairly distributed, the demands of trade unions for social justice cannot be achieved.

The MTUC ensures that the labour force (both male and female) does not suffer any disadvantage or discrimination, through its representation on the National Labour Advisory Council(NLAC), the tripartite body of government, employers, and workers chaired by the Ministry of Labour. The technical committee of NLAC Meets regularly on a tripartite basis and the committee on retrenchment (set up to discuss current retrenchment problems) discusses training, re-training and employment opportunities for both men and women. Here it must be mentioned that this machinery has not been too successful in protecting labour.

In developing countries, the gainful employment of women outside the household has become an important and essential factor in all branches of the economy. It is of great significance for the women themselves because it gives them the opportunity to be economically independent, to develop their potential and self-confidence, and to increase their readiness for trade union participation and political commitment.

## EDUCATION AND TRAINING FOR WOMEN

Since 1975, training programmes have also been devised to enable women to be trained in fields and areas that were once the sole domain of men. Although equal opportunity is a basic objective, women' enrolment at all levels has constantly been lower than that of men.

However, the disparity between female and male enrolment ratios is not wide at the primary and secondary educational levels but widens at higher levels of education. Out of a total student enrolment of 13,000 in the six universities only 30% were female in 1975. This figure had increased to 38.4% in 1979. The ratio of female enrolment has been increasing from year to year. At the University of Malaya, the number of female students during the 1974/75 session was 2,406 i.e. 32% of the total student enrolled (7,594). During the 1983/84 session, the female intake had increased to 3,602 or 46% of the total intake for the year. Women were fairly well represented in the arts, humanities, dentistry, and law courses, though still grossly under-represented in some science subjects.

Although the number of female students also increased in institutions, the choice of courses was a matter of concern. Female students tended to concentrate in the arts and social sciences, and in fields which are related to women's traditional roles such as domestic science. In the sciences such as engineering, dentistry, and medicine, only 1% of the total of female students enroled in 1974/75 followed the engineering course; 2% of the total of female students in 1974/75 followed the dentistry course, and 6% medicine.

In addition it should be emphasised that women, like men, enter employment to support their families, thus their career development should be viewed with the same amount of concern and importance.

The whole world is undergoing technological change. New technology (micro-electronics, computer and telecommunications) causes substantial changes in the work to be performed and in the qualifications required. It is expected that an increasing number of jobs will be lost or downgraded into low and medium skilled activities such as word processing, data collection and clerical work. Therefore training and further training for women in those fields which traditionally have been reserved for men is a necessity. To compete for the newly created jobs on equal terms with men, women will need to acquire more technical skills.

On entering or returning to employment, women are often subjected to discrimination. Despite the principle of "equal pay for equal work", they find themselves, at the bottom of the wage and salary scale because too low a value is placed on their work. Equal access to vocational training and equality of opportunity in professional life are denied to women. They do not receive equal treatment in promotion even if they show that they have the same aptitudes and the same training as their male colleagues. The cause lies chiefly in the double burden still borne today by many working women and the associated prejudices about the roles of men and women.

The diversification of women's training and employment opportunities must be discussed in relation to the following objectivities:

- The elimination of any form of discrimation based on sex and/or marital status
- The rejection of traditional attitudes, which call in to question women's right to work and propagate outdated views about their roles
- The creation of equal opportunities and equal rights in the labour market
- Make gainful employment compatible with responsibilities for family and household management
- The inclusion of equal rights and equal opportunities for women and men in trade union work.

## EDUCATION AND TRAINING

To ensure full participation of women in development, they need to be prepared. Without women's full participation there can be no true development. The following were among the programmes implemented by the government to achieve these objectives: free education until the upper secondary level; the provision of teaching and other educational facilities; trained teachers and educational aids to assist the poor, including text books on loan and scholarships; and the construction of more residential schools in rural areas. Now everyone has an equal opportunity to acquire an education. Hence, enrolment increases at all levels of education have increased. At the primary level, enrollment in government and government-aided schools expanded from about 1.5 million in 1975 to 2.2 million in 1985.[1/] The number of female children enrolled in various schools has been increasing too, as can be seen in table below:

TABLE 1
Number of Female Students
Attending School

| AGE | FEMALE | | |
|---|---|---|---|
| | 1975 | 1982 | % Change |
| 6 - 11 years | 769,620 | 829,355 | 7.8 |
| 12 - 15 year | 326,275 | 487,926 | 19.5 |
| 16 - 23 years | 9,325 | 21,852 | 132.6 |

Source: Ministry of Education, 1974/75 and 1982

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1/ Fifth Malaysia Plan 1986 - 1990

Apart from the formal education system, there are vocational schools throughout the country. The subjects taught are mostly related to industrial occupations, however, non-industrial subjects like commerce, agriculture, and home-science are also taught in some schools. Various government agencies such as the Ministry of Labour, the Ministry of National Development, the Ministry of Culture. Youth and Sports also undertake industrial training programmes. Although women are not being discriminated against, the majority of them are still in fields that are traditional thought of for women such as cosmetics, hairdressing and dressmaking. There are also programmes especially for women and girls provided by government agencies such as the Ministry of National Development and various women organisations. These include training programmes like home economics for girls and women in rural areas.

## LABOUR FORCE PARTICIPATION OF WOMEN

With higher educational attainment, participation rates are expected to rise, particularly for females in the age group of 20-24 years. It is estimated that while the aggregate female labour force participation rate is expected to rise from 45.2% (1980) to 45.8% (1985), the labour force participation rate for females aged 20 to 24 is expected to increased from 56.5% (1980) to 59.0% (1985).

The past years have shown a significant increase in the number of women entering the employment market due to the process of modernisation brought about by greater industrialisation and urbanisation. In urban areas, female participation increased from 41.1% in 1975 to 42.8% in 1980 while in rural areas, it decreased from 50.1% in 1975 to 45.8% in 1980. In the agricultural sector, the largest employment generating sector, the percentage of female employment declined from 51.9% in 1975 to 40.28% in 1980, and the employment of women in the manufacturing sector increased from 16.3% in 1975 to 20.7% in 1980.

The decrease in the agricultural sector is due to the migration of young women to the cities. Although economic transformation has lead to higher employment of women, the employment opportunities exist only in a few sectors of the economy. About 71% of the unskilled workers employed by the textile manufacturing industries are women. In 1980, 85% of the workforce in the electronic industries were females and the majority of these women were employed as production workers. In 1975 about 5.5% of the female workforce were in the professional, technical, and related workers groups. Although in 1980 participation had increased to 8.3%. Within the professional group, most of them were concentrated in lower status professions such as teaching and nursing. The smallest occupational group was that of administrative and managerial workers which accounted for only 0.1% in 1975 and 0.3% in 1980.

Although the government is implementing positive action programmes to offer equality in the educational system at all levels, it is evident from the above that both family and schools must take responsibility for the preparation of young people for productive lives, with equal rights in the family, at work and in society. Education must be directed towards the elimination of social prejudices, the removal of social barriers, and the abolition of any form of discrimination. To achieve equal opportunities for girls to achieve higher qualifications for professional careers, it is necessary to change public attitudes so that women's jobs are not regarded as a short term transition to marriage.

Workers, trade unions and non-government organisations are taking measures whereby school text books and all other teaching material would be revised so that role stereotypes may eliminated and and syllabuses at all levels developed to promote equal education at all levels. Well planned, balanced courses must be provided for girls and boys, not based on stereotyped views of subjects considered "suitable" for only one sex. In view of the development of new teaching technologies, elementary training courses should be organised to familiarise all children, girls and boys, with the operation of computers. Such courses could be included in basic education.

In order to put these principals into practice, however women should be involved in educational policy formulation. Workers and trade unions also see the need for adult education,vocational guidance, vocational training, and further training to diversify the employment opportunities for women.

## ADULT EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

Employers must become aware that more and more women will be employed throughout their working lives and will commit themselves to their employment. It is management's interest that through training, with possibilities of further training and promotion, is made available to women employees.

Vocational guidance helps people to match personal aptitudes with the range of jobs available. Women's and girls employment opportunities will be severely limited if such guidance is not available. Only comprehensive vocational training of a high standard guarantees girls and women equality of opportunity. Women should be able to choose jobs on the basis of preference and ability without any sexual bias. Efforts must be made to place girls in training and jobs which hitherto been male preserves.

To ensure women's access to employment, the trade unions see it necessary for legal and contractual measures to be taken in accordance with the ILO Convention No. 111 on discrimination in employment and occupation. The government must do everything possible to achieve and continue full employment of men and women, including steps to eradicate hidden unemployment which affects women most severely. In this context, job advertisements must be addressed equally to women and men, and offer the same opportunity of employment.

Here, I would like to mention that the trade unions have set up vocational schools to supplement those provided by the government, namely the Workers Institute of Technology and the school set up by the

National Union of Plantation Workers. These schools are heavily subsidised and also assisted by international funding. It would be in the interest of the government to also assist these schools financially, as the trainees are from poor families and also because of the absence of sufficient vocational schools in the country.

## EQUAL PAY FOR WORK OF EQUAL VALUE

Although much progress has been gained in the application of equal pay for male and female workers, earning differentials still exist and women are concentrated in the lower wage occupations traditionally considered as "women's job", within the agricultural sector, manufacturing sector, electronics industry, and textile industry. The most exploit workers are women in the plantation sector who work as contract labour, without labour protection. Here, awareness programmes are hardly known.

There is urgent need for trade unions to promote the diversification of women's training and employment opportunities. To achieve this, trade unions, employers and the government should work together to ratify international conventions relating to women's rights and protection:

- to embody the principles of these standards in legislation;
- to improve statistics on women's employment and unemployment, and to carry out research into the effects of technological change on the employment of women;
- to pursue an active labour market policy which emphasises and recognises the value of women in the labour force, and takes due account of women's employment problems;
- to pursue a family policy which will enable both men and women to be gainfully employed and to fulfil their parental roles at the same time. If women are to participate in working life on

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equal terms, men will have to assume their share of the responsibility for housework and looking after the family;

- to create machinery to monitor and act on measures which have a discriminatory effect on the employment of women;
- to finance and develop training programmes;
- to amend all provisions in law and social policy that work to women's disadvantage;
- to develop specific programmes so that the problems of working women can be analysed and possible solutions indicated; and,
- to work out action programmes in order to eliminate prejudice against the employment of women.

It is also recommended that the United Nations, the International Labour Organisation, and other competent regional and international organisations draw up more effective instruments for monitoring and observing international conventions. The ILO, is also called upon to draw up international standards for the protection of workers who are affected by technological changes which inter-alia take account of the special problems faced by women. The ILO is further called upon to monitor discriminatory practices and measures against women by member countries.

If the diversification of women's training and employment is to be taken seriously, then there should be total commitment from the women themselves; commitment from the employers to accept women workers without reservations based on gender; and commitment from the government which must realise that the development of the country can take place only with the full participation of women.

In conclusion, I must re-emphasise that government and employers must honour the ILO conventions and recommendations and other instruments to which, as a member country, they have been a party.

## TABLE 2

## PERCENTAGE DISTRIBUTION OF THE POPULATION WHO HAVE EVER ATTENDED VOCATIONAL TRAINING BY FIELD OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING, AGE AND SEX, MALAYSIA, 1980

| Field of vocational training | Below 30 | | 30 and over | | All ages | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | F | M | F | M | F |
| Building and woodwork | 14 | 2 | 14 | 1 | 14 | 1 |
| Metalwork including automotive repair and maintenance work | 23 | 1 | 16 | - | 21 | 1 |
| Electrical, electronic, radio and television repair work | 17 | 2 | 11 | 1 | 15 | 2 |
| Commercial work | 6 | 27 | 6 | 11 | 6 | 23 |
| Agriculture work including logging | 6 | 2 | 5 | 1 | 6 | 2 |
| Service work including hotel and catering, beauty culture and tailoring | 12 | 32 | 4 | 40 | 3 | 34 |
| Painting, printing and draftsmen work | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 1 |
| Others | 9 | 8 | 14 | 11 | 11 | 9 |
| Unknown | 22 | 25 | 29 | 24 | 24 | 27 |
| Number (thousands) | 75.8 | 55.2 | 35.0 | 17.5 | 110.7 | 72.7 |

Source: Population Census 1980, Department of Statistics

# SUMMARY OF PAPERS BY WORKERS' REPRESENTATIVES
# PHILIPPINES

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## OVERVIEW OF THE PROBLEM

Women in the Philippines are supposed to be among the most emancipated in Asia, primarily because they occupy a position equal to their menfolk. Furthermore, they are said to have made impressive advances to fields which are traditionally described as the exclusive domain of men.

However, a closer look into the employment situation in the Philippines shows that, while Filipino women have achieved a certain degree of advancement in some fields, still much has to be done in order to improve the working and living conditions of the majority of Filipino women, particularly with regard to diversifying their employment and training.

Women in the Philippines account for more than one-half of the working population aged 15 and over. Yet, they have a lower labour force participation rate than men (36 and 68 per cent, respectively) according to latest available statistics. Employed women have never exceeded 40 per cent of all employed persons in any survey period. Unemployment and underemployment rates among women are at least, twice a high as those for the opposite sex. The bulk of employed women are concentrated in industries and occupations which are generally characterised by low levels of skill, productivity, and remuneration (e.g. agriculture, commerce, and services); and they have yet to penetrate in substantial numbers the highly lucrative industries and occupations which for many decades now have remained male-dominated (e.g. mining and quarrying, construction, utilities, and professional and technical fields). Women workers also remain a minority in managerial and supervisory positions. Meanwhile, women who make it to the executive ladder occupy posts of a routine nature with limited responsibilities; there are also indications of substantial wage differentials between women and men at the same managerial levels.

One major factor which limits the access of women to a wider range of employment opportunities at higher skill and income levels pertains to women's education and training. Generally, women in the Philippines do not receive adequate education and training to enable them to participate in a broad range of occupation in all industries. While two-thirds of Filipino women have attended school, only a minority of them survive the tertiary level of education, which is usually the minimum requirement for relatively high-paying jobs. The situation is far more serious in the rural areas. The reason is more often than not an economic one, whereby children forced to quit schooling to help on the farms, in the case of sons, or to attend to household chores in the case of daughters. There is also the problem of parents, especially in rural areas, being reluctant to send their daughters to higher education because of the probability of early marriage. They consider that there is very limited opportunity to put to practice whatever learning their daughters acquire in school because married women only carry out housekeeping activities.

Limited access to vocational training also hinders the diversification of women's occupations. While efforts are being made to increase women's participation in vocational training, the majority of working women have not yet benefitted. This is very apparent in rural areas where a little over one percent of married rural women have undergone vocational training.

## MEASURES AND INITIATIVES TAKEN BY THE TUCP TO DIVERSIFY WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS

The TUCP's special concern of the plight of Filipino women is reflected in its creation of a special department within its organisation. As provided for in its Constitution, the TUCP Women's Department is responsible for promoting the status of working women through education and extension programmes.

To carry out this objective, the Women' Department has been undertaking various activities in collaboration with sympathetic organisations. Among such activities are those vocational programmes sponsored by the International Confederation of Free Trade Unions (ICFTU) which were primarily established to help women workers acquire new skills and increase their incomes. So far, the TUCP Women's Department has conducted secretarial and dressmaking classes which have been attended by women from different local unions affiliated with TUCP federations. The Department hopes to expand these programmes in the future to benefit more women workers, including those outside the TUCP umbrella.

Simultaneously, the Women's Department is actively participating in forums, whether at a national, industry, or enterprise level, which tackle issues affecting the working and living conditions of women workers.

Women workers have also benefitted from activities which are conducted by TUCP departments other than the Women's Department. For instance, the Membership Services department launched several livelihood programmes to advance the social and economic conditions of members and their families. Among these programmes is the agricultural skills training programme which has benefitted a considerable number of women in depressed areas of the country. The project has been assisting women to acquire new skills, particularly skills in setting up small-scale businesses.

## CONSTRAINTS

As much as the TUCP leadership desires to expand its current programmes for women, several factors have been hindering the realisation of this objective. Foremost among such factors are the limited financial and manpower resources at the disposal of the national labour centre. Priorities have been set by the TUCP leadership to maximise the benefits derived from available TUCP resources. At the moment, a substantial proportion of TUCP resources has been channeled in to organisational drives to expand TUCP membership as well as projects aimed at assisting displaced members in depressed industries through the assistance of friendly organisations like the ICFTU, ILO & AAFLI.

## POLICIES AND MEASURES TO DIVERSIFY WOMEN'S OCCUPATIONS

The TUCP believes that the rationalisation and democratisation of the education system especially in the rural areas should be the first major concern of any workers' organisation. Unless access of women to education is greatly improved, women will remain concentrated in a "narrow range of occupations, at low levels of skills, productivity and pay with little job security and frequent health hazards."

The TUCP also sees the need to eliminate provisions in existing laws which discriminate against women like nightwork prohibition for women and to push for more flexible protective legislation. The TUCP would also like to see the expansion of national manpower training programmes, particularly those courses which would help women move into occupations which were considered the exclusive domain of men.

# CHAPTER VII

# SUMMARY OF PAPERS BY EMPLOYERS' REPRESENTATIVES

# SUMMARY OF PAPER PRESENTED BY EMPLOYERS' REPRESENTATIVES INDIA

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## Industrial Growth in India

India started industrialisation rather late and initially at a very slow rate. Modern industries such as the plantation, mining and textile industries were established towards the end of the nineteenth century. The flow of British capital, technology and management helped their development. The process of industrial growth was relatively slow till the first World War. During 1919 - 1939 new industries developed rapidly such as iron and steel, sugar, cement. Indian capital and management participated actively in this growth. The second World War gave further stimulus to the industries. With independence in 1947, and through a series of five year plans since 1951, industrial growth has been quite rapid. Today, India is the tenth industrialised country in the developing third world.

## Status of Women

The constitution of India provides for equal rights and privileges for men and women, and makes special provisions for women to help them improve their status in society. A number of measures have been taken for removing various constraints which hindered their progress. In spite of these measures, women have lagged behind men in different spheres, especially in education. The female literacy rate has consistently been lower in both rural and urban sectors. In rural areas, where 77 percent of the female population lives, the literacy of women is only 17.96 percent. The urban literacy rate for females is 47.82 percent. The literacy rate for females varies also by region form 65.73 percent in Kerala to only 11.42 percent in Rajastan. There are many reasons for this, generally of a sociological nature.

According to the 1981 Census, only 14 percent of the total female population in the country falls into the category of "workers". The unpaid economic activity of women and their contribution through work in the domestic sectors remains unreported in the census. An ILO study has estimated that the value of unpaid household work constitutes 25-39 percent of the total gross national product in developing countries.

Women play and important role in agricultural production, animal husbandry, and other related activities such as storage, marketing of produce and food processing. Apart from this, they spend almost 10-12 hours per day doing household chores, including fetching water and gathering fuel. Large numbers of women are engaged in the plantation sector. About 54 percent of rural women and 26 percent of urban women are engaged in marginal occupations in order to supplement the family income by the collection of fish, small game, firewood, cowdung, by the maintenance of kitchen gardens, and by tailoring, waving and teaching. However, the characteristics of these activities in terms of work-hours, and the income-generating equivalent has not been recorded.

Recently, a declining trend has been observed in the employment of women labourers. New technologies have displaced women from many of traditional activities. The "green revolution" has led to increased demands for casual labour and the dispossession of small landholders from their land and, consequently, women from such small landholdings have had to become wage earners. Though many of the tasks performed by males are getting mechanised, the women continue to toil in labour-intensive jobs like rice transplantation, cleaning and storage of grain in post-harvest operations, picking of leaves and fruit, handshelling groundnuts, and picking out common-seed. Women have limited job opportunities in modern occupations/trades as they do not have access to the training required for using new technologies. In many areas where multiple crops are grown, the workload of women has increased. In industry, women continue to be employed mostly in unskilled jobs. The average earnings of a regular salaried woman worker continues to be less than that of a man.

An emerging phenomenon in the rural scene is the "single parent rural family". Due to large-scale migration of men seeking employment in urban areas, rural women have had to assume the role of head of household and the responsibility for the support and care of the children and elders. Her income is inadequate to meet the family's needs which leads to tension in the family as remittances from the men-folk are mostly irregular and meagre, given the high cost (and many temptations) of urban living.

## Employment in the Organised Sector of the Economy

The organised sector registered a growth of about 2 percent in employment over the Sixth Plan Period. Provisional estimates for March 1985 indicated that growth in employment during 1984-85 was of the order of 1.6 percent.

Table I: Employment in the Organised Sector

| At the end of | Employment (in lakhs) | | | Percentage Change | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Public Sector | Private Sector | Total | Public Sector | Private Sector | Total |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| March 1984 | 168.7 | 73.4 | 242.1 | +2.5 | -2.4 | +1.0 |
| March 1985 (Provisional) | 172.8 | 73.2 | 246.0 | + -0.3 | +1.6 | +1.6 |

While employment in the public sector increased by 2.5 percent during 1984 - 1985, it decreased by 0.3 percent in the private sector.

## Employment of Women

The employment in the public sector increased by 3.5 percent from 30.57 lakhs at the end of March, 1984 to 31.65 lakhs at the end of March, 1985 (provisional). The growth rate was 5.1 percent in public sector and 1.4 percent in the private sector during the same period.

## Urbanisation and Migration

With the growth of industries in the economy, the urban areas began to expand. By 1981, there were 216 cities with population of more than 1 lakh, and of these 12 cities had populations of 10 lakh and more. Yet a major part of the Indian population, more than 75 percent lives in the rural areas and except for the three big cities: Bombay, Calcutta, and Madras, the urban population is not very high. In the case of Greater Bombay, migrants contributed 50 percent to the population growth in 1961-71, but their share of the growth in 1971-81 was lower at 37 percent. The following data illustrates the relative slow rate of migration in India.

Table II: Net Rural-Urban Migration as percentage of Urban Growth

| | 1950-60 | 1960-70 | World Total |
|---|---|---|---|
| India | 22.2 | 18.1 | 1950-60 : 49% |
| Pakistan | 58 | 56 | 1960-75 : 33% |
| Uganda | 81 | 80 | 1980-90 : 30% |
| Malaysia | 64 | 54 | (projection) |
| Bolivia | 48 | 46 | |

Source: Australian National University Development Studies Centre, Monograph No. 33, 1984.

Migration indicates the growth and prosperity of these urban areas and the opportunities available therein. The processes of migration, urbanisation, and industrial growth of an area are inter-related.

Extension of factory employment has been concentrated in the cities and people migrate in the hope of getting jobs. But in India during 1971 - 1981, 50 percent of the increase in the population of the towns was due more to natural increase in population.

## Literacy and Education

A major constraint on the more equal access of women to better remunerative employment and wider occupational choice has been their comparatively lower levels of literacy. In 1970, fewer than 44% of women over 15 years of age in developing countries could read and write against 60% of men. However, during the 1970s the literacy rates in developing countries as a whole increased spectacularly to more than 61% for women and 68% for men, and it is hoped that this trend will continue in the '80s. In India, special attention is being paid to the education of women. It is rightly said, "If you educate a man, you educate and individual; if you educate a woman, you educate a family".

The Indian Education Commission, in its report of 1969, regretted the failure to achieve equal opportunities for all citizens in every field. It emphasised the crucial importance of fulfiling this constitutional directive in the coming decades. In view of the immense resources needed for this purpose, the commission recommended phasing this programme in the following manner:

- By providing 5 years of education to all children by 1975 - 1976 and 7 years of such education by 1985 - 1986.
- By making part-time education compulsory for about one year for all children in the age group of 11 to 14 who have not completed the lower primary stage and are not attending schools. The aim will be to make these children functionally literate and stop further additions to the ranks of the adult non-literates; and
- By efforts to eradicate adult illiteracy.

*Despite all these efforts* and the recommendations of the National Committee on Women's Education (1959), the review of the Fifth Five Year Plan noted that in spite of substantial progress in the expansion of educational facilities, the targets laid down for both elementary and secondary education were not met, while those in higher education were exceeded. Analysis by experts show that this failure was due to slower progress of education among girls, scheduled castes, and scheduled tribes.

Since the International Year of Women, Indian planners have made special efforts to charter programmes for women's development. According to the Sixth Plan mid-term review, the field of education under the programme of elementary education, there has been a special drive for higher enrolment and retention of girls in schools. It is reported that the enrolment of girls increased from 272.78 lakhs (64.9%) in 1979 - 1980 to 281.18 lakhs (66.2%) in 1980 - 1981, 291.19 lakhs (70.3%) in 1981 - 1982 and 301.58 lakhs (72.4%) in 1982-83 in classes I to V. The target for 1983-84 was 319.60 lakhs (76.3%). To encourage enrolment of girls in schools, special incentives like free books and stationery and scholarships were given.

## Training

General education alone does not equip and individual for employment. With growth of industrialisation, mechanism, and specialised jobs, specialised training is essential. The main handicap women face is the lack of training. It is one of the reasons why they find it difficult to get into the organised industrial sector and are employed more in the informal and household sectors. The main constraint which women face in training is the social bias which forbids women from entering certain fields, which are supposed to be male domains. Perhaps the greatest constraint on improving women's access to training which leads to marketable skills and employment is the difficulty of knowing how to break this vicious circle. Perceived social roles for women influence the type of education they pursue and receive, which in turn affects their view of themselves and the jobs to which they might aspire. The jobs that women do as a result of this process of conditioning and channeling, are considered to be the ones for which basic education and vocational training should be provided. Sex stereotyping in education and training contribute substantially to the creation of a category of "women's occupations" in the labour market. To break this state of mind, a change in social attitude is imperative. However, such changes cannot be achieved unless an attempt is made to train women in other fields.

In India there is a special vocational training programme for women. This programme was launched in March 1977 with the assistance of the Swedish International Development Authority, and executed through the ILO. As a part of this project, a central training institute for women instructors in New Delhi was upgraded to become the National Vocational Training Institute for Women and to function as an apex centre. Three vocational training institutes for women have also been set up in Bangalore, Bombay, and Trivandrum to organise training programmes for various levels of skills. Programmes in these centres impart training to urban and rural women.

Table III

| Sl. No. | Name of the Institute | No. trained in various courses up to 31.12.84 | No. enrolled in various trades as on 31.12.84 |
|---|---|---|---|
| 1. | NVTI, New Delhi | 1,848 | 183 + 32* |
| 2. | RVTI, Bangalore | 839 | 213 + 11* |
| 3. | RVTI, Bombay | 423 | 125 |
| 4. | RVTI, Trivandrum | - | 26 |

* Short term and ad hoc courses.

The rate of growth of women's employment against that of men in the decade 1971-81 has been encouraging. In 1971, there were 30.93 million women employed as 'main' workers according to the census of that year. This figure had risen to 45.97 million in 1981, a rise of 48.6 percent. By contrast, in 1971, men held 144 million 'main' jobs, a figure which rose to 174.12 million jobs in 1981 or only 20.8 percent. Thus, the increase for women was more than twice that for men in this decade. There are grounds for believing this differential is likely to continue.

If, one takes the total employment of 1981 at 247.15 millions, women's jobs was 83.7 percent. We need to know more about the opportunities available.

There are also favourable signs to be found in the Economic Census. Tables IV and V show that women figured significantly in own account enterprises. This benchmark study also shows varied opportunities in non-agricultural sectors. The tertiary sector, which includes the media; is growing more rapidly than any other. This includes the government sector on which a political strategy should be framed.

## Trends in India's Female Working Population: 1971-1981

One of the most interesting findings arising the 1981 Census is that relating to the employment of women. As will be seen from Table VI the number of females employed increased spectacularly from 36.275 million in 1971 to 66.34 million in 1981. This is just short of doubling their employment within the decade and implies that of the total additional jobs created, women got 30 million out of perhaps 67 million. However, in both cases, it is clear that a pattern of social transformation was in operations whereby women had greater freedom to get jobs, in both urban and rural areas.

Participation seems to be more a reflection of local custom and practice than of the general growth of the economy requiring more female labour. In Table VII, the participation rate of women is shown for 29 states. It will be seen that against an average of 20.85 percent, women have higher rates of participation in eleven states. Unfortunately, these are the smaller states particulary in the north-east, but Maharashtra, M.P. and Tamil Nadu stand above the average. It is not clear why forward-looking states like Punjab and Haryana are at the bottom of the list. Nor can the figure for Gujarat, with a participation rate of only 11.85 percent, fails to cause surprise. Indeed Kerala, notwithstanding its matriarchal system, appears in this table to be a "backward" state. The figure of participation at 12.79 is much less than the average rate of 20.85 for both main workers and marginal workers.

We can now look at urban and rural differences. The female worker participation rate in rural areas has increased from 15.29 to 23.89 percent, roughly 50 percent. In urban areas, it has increased from 7.18 percent, a remarkably low figure, to 6.14 percent, roughly a third. In other words, female employment in percentage terms has risen more in rural than in urban areas. However, this needs to be examined not only in terms of numbers, but in the quality of work. It seems that urban income earning opportunities are greater, therefore, quality of jobs and higher wages are being sought by many women.

If we take absolute figures of the working population, we find that the figure for females have increased in rural areas from 32.72 million to 58.5 million, while the corresponding figures for urban areas increased from a very low figure of 3.55 million in 1970 - 1971 to 7.783 million, or more than double. Thus, there is slightly greater dynamism in the rate of growth of female employment in urban areas as against rural areas. However, when we look at the additional jobs under both categories of "main" workers and "marginal" workers, it would appear that rural areas have provided 26 million additional jobs, while the urban areas have only provided four million. This reflects what seems to be a basic new fact that it is agriculture, and perhaps agricultural labour, which is providing much more employment for women in the population. It could be that practically all the increase in employment in agriculture comes from an addition of female labourers to the agricultural labour pool. If, as is likely, there has been increased poverty in certain sections of the country, one would expect that both men and women would go out for work together, whereas previously, often men only sought work while women stayed at home. These statistics call for detailed analysis by state and by occupation. Female employment has risen spectacularly in rural areas; exactly where and when, and with what remuneration is still largely unknown.

One can conclude that, as this movement for female employment gathers strength, there will be severe competition between men and women seeking jobs, particularly in rural areas. At the present time it would appear that no significant signs of conflict have appeared. One explanation could be that women are working more as cultivators on their own land as well as working as agricultural labourers on tasks where physical strength is not a major requirement. But if this trend should continue, and the total number of jobs available in the next decade does not rise much more rapidly than in the decade which has passed, one can expect female competition to emerge. This is a factor for which policy decisions will need to be made. In the first place, this would raise the numbers of the working population significantly, and secondly, it would probably be a source of considerable dispute particularly in urban areas, if urban unemployment should continue to grow as at present. There is already some ground for assuming that in government jobs, the rate of growth of female employment is causing concern among low skilled urban males.

## TABLE IV

## Distribution of Own Account Enterprises and Employment Therein by Major Activity Groups-All India Rural - and Urban Combined

(Figures in thousand)

| Major Activity Group | Number of Enterprises | Persons Employed | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Females | Percentage |
| | (1) | (2) | (2a) | (2b) |
| Mining and Quarrying | 18.9 | 34.5 | 8.5 | 24.6 |
| Manufacturing and Repair Services | 4,646.5 | 8,109.2 | 2,271.6 | 28.0 |
| Electricity,Gas and Water | 41.1 | 5.7 | 0.2 | 3.5 |
| Construction | 123.4 | 149.9 | 8.8 | 5.9 |
| Wholesale and Retail Trade | 5,013.6 | 6,517.4 | 665.1 | 10.2 |
| Restaurants and Hotels | 541.9 | 831.8 | 145.9 | 17.5 |
| Transport | 253.9 | 290.1 | 5.8 | 2.0 |
| Storage and Warehousing | 56.7 | 66.6 | 1.2 | 1.8 |
| Communications | 0.9 | 1.4 | 0.1 | 7.1 |
| Financing,Insurance,etc. | 109.9 | 158.2 | 3.4 | 2.1 |
| Community, Social and Personal Services | 1,359.6 | 1,941.3 | 286.2 | 14.9 |
| Others | 19.7 | 29.9 | 3.2 | 10.7 |
| All Activities | 12,149.1 | 18,116.0 | 3,400.0 | 18.8 |

* Excluding Assam,
Source: Economic Census, 1980.

## TABLE V

## Distribution of Establishments and Employment Therein by Major Activity Group-All India*-Rural and Urban Combined

## (As per Economic Census, 1980

(Figures in thousands)

| Major Activity Groups | Number of Establishments | Person Employed | | | Hired Workers | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | Total | Females | Percentage | Total | Females | Percentage |
| | (1) | (2) | (2a) | (2b) | (2.1) | (2.1a) | (1.1b) |
| Mining and Quarrying | 11.0 | 308.6 | 51.3 | 16.6 | 297.1 | 49.0 | 16.5 |
| Manufacturing and Repair Services | 1,321.7 | 11,989.7 | 1,859.3 | 15.5 | 10,427.1 | 1,608.9 | 16.1 |
| Electricity,Gas & Water | 29.6 | 357.8 | 15.1 | 4.2 | 356.1 | 15.0 | 4.2 |
| Construction | 28.6 | 301.3 | 59.7 | 19.8 | 280.4 | 58.4 | 20.8 |
| Wholesale & Retail Trade | 1,032.6 | 3,711.3 | 237.5 | 6.4 | 2,553.1 | 172.9 | 6.8 |
| Restaurant & Hotel | 265.1 | 1,248.7 | 68.9 | 5.5 | 895.8 | 46.0 | 5.1 |
| Transport | 71.5 | 904.2 | 23.8 | 2.6 | 856.3 | 22.9 | 2.7 |
| Storage & Warehousing | 65.7 | 290.3 | 24.5 | 8.4 | 262.5 | 23.2 | 8.8 |
| Communications | 98.0 | 529.5 | 28.1 | 5.3 | 498.6 | 28.1 | 5.6 |
| Financing,Insurance etc. | 163.6 | 1,412.6 | 112.4 | 8.0 | 1,295.9 | 110.4 | 8.5 |
| community,Social & Personal Services | 1,638.1 | 11,207.5 | 1,730.3 | 15.4 | 10,900.1 | 1,692.5 | 15.5 |
| Others | 29.2 | 441.2 | 34.6 | 7.8 | 414.7 | 33.9 | 8.2 |
| All Activities | 4,754.7 | 32,702.7 | 4,245.5 | 13.0 | 29,037.7 | 3,933.2 | 13.5 |

*Excluding Assam. Source: Economic Census, 1980

## TABLE VI
## Work Participation Rates 1971-1981: Men and Women

| Total<br>Rural<br>Urban | 1971 |  |  | 1981 |  |  |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
|  | Persons | Males | Females | Persons | Males | Females |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
|  | TOTAL POPULATION |  |  |  | TOTAL POPULATION |  |
| Total | 528,917,868 | 273,876,721 | 255,041,147 | 658,140,676 | 339,895,757 | 318,244,919 |
| Rural | 421,951,334 | 216,347,948 | 205,603,386 | 501,952,169 | 256,836,180 | 245,115,989 |
| Urban | 106,966,534 | 57,528,773 | 49,437,761 | 156,188,507 | 83,059,577 | 73,128,930 |
|  | A-WORKERS |  |  |  | A-MAIN WORKERS |  |
| Total | 175,022,612 | 144,088,814 | 30,933,798 | 220,082,531 | 174,115,384 | 45,967,147 |
| Rural | 143,634,620 | 116,004,845 | 27,629,775 | 174,529,113 | 134,097,736 | 40,431,377 |
| Urban | 31,387,992 | 28,083,969 | 3,304,023 | 45,553,418 | 40,017,648 | 5,535,770 |
|  | B-NON WORKERS WITH SECONDARY WORK AS WORKER |  |  |  | B-MARGINAL WORKERS |  |
| Total | 5,719,183 | 378,232 | 5,340,951 | 27,065,784 | 6,691,182 | 20,374,602 |
| Rural | 5,439,190 | 344,277 | 5,094,913 | 23,553,480 | 5,426,640 | 18,126,840 |
| Urban | 279,993 | 33,955 | 246,038 | 3,512,304 | 1,264,542 | 2,247,762 |
|  | A and B |  |  |  | A and B |  |
| Total | 180,741,795 | 144,467,046 | 36,274,749 | 247,148,315 | 108,806,566 | 66,341,749 |
| Rural | 149,073,810 | 116,349,122 | 32,724,688 | 198,082,593 | 139,524,376 | 58,558,217 |
| Urban | 31,667,985 | 28,117,924 | 3,550,061 | 49,065,722 | 41,282,190 | 7,783,523 |
|  | WORK PARTICIPATION RATE<br>A and B |  |  |  | WORK PARTICIPATION RATE<br>A and B |  |
| Total | 34.17 | 52.75 | 14.22 | 37.55 | 53.19 | 20.85 |
| Rural | 35.33 | 53.78 | 15.92 | 39.46 | 54.32 | 23.89 |
| Urban | 29.61 | 48.88 | 7.18 | 31.41 | 49.70 | 10.64 |

## TABLE VII
## State and Union Territories Arranged in Descending Order of Their 1981 Female Work Participation Rate

| Rank in 1981 | State/Union Territory | Female Work Participation rate | | Rank in 1971 |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| | | 1981 | 1971 | |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 1. | Negaland | 40.83 | 45.24 | 2 |
| 2. | Arunachal Pradesh | 40.64 | 51.28 | 1 |
| 3. | Manipur | 36.52 | 23.62 | 8 |
| 4. | Maghalaya | 34.97 | 34.57 | 6 |
| 5. | Sikkim | 34.68 | 41.85 | 3 |
| 6. | Mizoram | 32.73 | 39.46 | 4 |
| 7. | Andhra Pradesh | 27.87 | 24.16 | 7 |
| 8. | Dadra and Nagra Heveili | 26.20 | 38.96 | 5 |
| 9. | Maharashtra | 24.39 | 19.70 | 10 |
| 10. | Madhya Pradesh | 22.63 | 18.65 | 11 |
| 11. | Tamil Nadu | 22.57 | 15.09 | 13 |
| 12. | Karnataka | 19.23 | 14.20 | 14 |
| 13. | Himachal Pradesh | 18.80 | 20.79 | 9 |
| 14. | Goa, Daman and Diu | 15.10 | 15.40 | 12 |
| 15. | Kerala | 12.79 | 13.49 | 16 |
| 16. | Gujarat | 11.85 | 10.26 | 18 |
| 17. | Pondicherry | 11.05 | 10.94 | 17 |
| 18. | Orissaa | 10.88 | 6.81 | 21 |
| 19. | Rajastan | 9.44 | 8.34 | 20 |
| 20. | Bihar | 9.16 | 8.88 | 19 |
| 21. | Tripura | 9.08 | 4.83 | 24 |
| 22. | Chandigarh | 8.87 | 5.70 | 23 |
| 23. | Delhi | 6.39 | 4.75 | 25 |
| 24. | Uttar Pradesh | 6.02 | 6.71 | 22 |
| 25. | West Bengal | 5.97 | 4.43 | 27 |
| 26. | Lakshadweep | 5.57 | 13.60 | 15 |
| 27. | Andaman & Nicobar Islands | 5.03 | 4.53 | 26 |
| 28. | Haryana | 4.82 | 2.41 | 28 |
| 29. | Punjab | 3.09 | 1.18 | 29 |

## TABLE VIII
## Distribution of Non-Agricultural Enterprises and Employment Therein By Type of Enterprises and by States/Union Territories
## (Rural and Urban Combined)

(Figures in Hundreds)

| State /Union Territory | Own-account Enterprises | | | Establishment | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Number of Enterprises | Persons Employed | Females | Number of Establishment | Persons Employed | Female | Hired Persons | Hired Females |
| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
| Adhra Pradesh | 11,063 | 18,030 | 4,868 | 3,638 | 26,532 | 5,793 | 22,637 | 5,311 |
| Bihar | 7,579 | 11,648 | 1,865 | 2,486 | 15,463 | 1,188 | 13,557 | 1,042 |
| Gujarat | 6,181 | 8,820 | 1,031 | 3,017 | 22,859 | 2,266 | 20,674 | 2,163 |
| Haryana | 2,378 | 3,241 | 195 | 703 | 6,281 | 598 | 5,705 | 588 |
| Himachal Pradesh | 958 | 1,184 | 81 | 368 | 2,105 | 232 | 1,988 | 228 |
| Jemmu & Kashmir | 1,265 | 1,589 | 79 | 606 | 3,090 | 366 | 2,759 | 340 |
| Karnataka | 8,387 | 12,702 | 3,330 | 3,840 | 21,351 | 3,689 | 19,119 | 3,413 |
| Kerala | 5,430 | 7,050 | 1,311 | 2,826 | 16,704 | 4,879 | 15,152 | 4,679 |
| Madhya Pradesh | 9,738 | 14,635 | 3,225 | 2,768 | 16,467 | 1,726 | 14,898 | 1,603 |
| Maharashtra | 11,064 | 15,723 | 2,622 | 5,817 | 49,123 | 5,317 | 44,394 | 5,081 |
| Manipur | 232 | 398 | 182 | 91 | 603 | 96 | 553 | 87 |
| Meghalaya | 130 | 194 | 67 | 169 | 825 | 164 | 746 | 149 |
| Negaland | 62 | 114 | 18 | 91 | 623 | 97 | 536 | 75 |
| Orissa | 5,663 | 8,762 | 2,235 | 1,820 | 9,739 | 875 | 9,011 | 829 |
| Punjab | 3,190 | 4,357 | 154 | 1,316 | 8,731 | 895 | 7,588 | 859 |
| Rajastan | 6,564 | 9,426 | 1,289 | 2,030 | 12,031 | 1,017 | 10,475 | 964 |
| Sikkimn | 39 | 60 | 12 | 36 | 233 | 43 | 214 | 40 |

cont'd. TABLE VIII

| 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Tamil Nadu | 11,823 | 18,614 | 5,317 | 4,733 | 30,783 | 5,977 | 26,976 | 5,509 |
| Tripura | 365 | 499 | 44 | 143 | 795 | 112 | 710 | 109 |
| Uttara Pradesh | 15,857 | 64,382 | 3,214 | 4,902 | 31,494 | 2,240 | 27,424 | 2,048 |
| West Bengal | 11,222 | 16,456 | 2,432 | 4,443 | 34,210 | 2,718 | 30,568 | 2,536 |
| Andaman Nicobar Island | 34 | 48 | 5 | 33 | 308 | 23 | 294 | 22 |
| Arunachal Pradesh | 39 | 59 | 7 | 63 | 360 | 26 | 346 | 27 |
| Chandigarh | 91 | 142 | 8 | 61 | 1,052 | 114 | 998 | 110 |
| Dadra & Nagar Haveli | 8 | 11 | 2 | 10 | 59 | 7 | 55 | 7 |
| Delhi | 1,621 | 2,202 | 142 | 1,217 | 12,338 | 1,209 | 10,864 | 1,171 |
| Goa, Daman, Diu | 302 | 505 | 184 | 155 | 1,856 | 611 | 1,222 | 200 |
| Lakshdweep | 30 | 64 | 16 | 12 | 65 | 8 | 58 | 6 |
| Mizoram | 62 | 92 | 43 | 66 | 351 | 60 | 328 | 54 |
| Pondicherry | 114 | 153 | 31 | 87 | 596 | 87 | 528 | 82 |
| Total | 121,491 | 181,160 | 34,000 | 47,547 | 327,027 | 42,455 | 290,377 | 39,332 |

# SUMMARY OF THE PAPER OF THE EMPLOYERS' REPRESENTATIVE
# JAPAN

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## Composition of the Female Labour Force

The recent increase of 48.7% in the female labour force participation rate in Japan is remarkable. In 1985, the number of females in the labour force (employed and unemployed persons) was 23.67 million; i.e. 39.7% of the total. 1/ Out of a total of 23.67 million employed women, 15.48 million were employees, accounting for 35.9% of the total.

The composition of female employees by industry was as follows: 30.0% in the service industry, 28.1% in manufacturing, 26.4% in wholesale and retail, and 5.8% in finance, insurance and real estate. Almost 90% were engaged in these four industries.

The breakdown by occupation was: 32.8% clerical workers, 22.7% craftsmen and production-process workers, 13.6% professional and technical workers, 11.8% sales workers, and 11.2% maintenance and other service workers. The ratio of managerial staff was however very small (0.9%).

The above figures show that, in spite of an increase in numbers, female employees were engaged in only certain categories. The small number of female managers and the increase of part-time women workers (accounting for 22.0% of female employees) are two salient characteristics to be noted.

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1/ Bureau of Statistics, Management and Coordination Agency, Labour Force Survey.

## Relation to Education and Training

### . Formal Education

What causes the concentration of female workers in certain sectors? One explanation could be the nature of their academic background. Of female students graduating from junior high school, 95.9% proceed to senior high school. The figure is not so different from that for boys which is 92.7%. The rate of persons entering 2-year junior colleges is 20.8% for females and 2.0% for males, and for persons entering college/university is 13.7% for females and 38.6% for males. There is quite a difference therefore where the numbers going to college is concerned.

Differences between male and female college students are found not only in numbers but also in the choice of major subjects. Of female college students, 35.4% major in humanities, 16.9% in education, and 15.1% in social science, compared with 7.6%, 25.3%, and 46.1% respectively for male students. The above figures clearly reflect the trend in their choice of jobs and future careers.

Recently, however, an increase has been seen in the number of female students who major in the natural sciences and engineering, which will contribute to expanding women's occupational opportunities.

At the moment, women tend to be tradition-oriented in choosing schools and majors, and do not connect their choice with their eventual occupation. In other words, they have not yet formed a distinct occupational self-image by the final stage of their education period. On the other hand, men have a tendency, whether consciously or not, to consider their academic career in the context of their proposed occupation.

. **Occupational Training**

Three characteristic features of the employment system in Japan must be pointed out at the outset, namely recruiting only new graduates, in-plant education and training, and job rotation and internal promotion accompanied with wage increases. These three features are interlinked in personnel management which is formed on the basis of long term employment. In fact, practical emphasis is placed on on-the-job training, including job rotation. By changing jobs or work place every two or three years, workers acquire new skills which expand their career possibilities.

Figure 2 shows the distribution of female and male workers classified by length of service. The percentage of females with 20 years or more and with 15-19 years of service increased from 2.9% and 3.3% in 1976 to 4.2% and 5.2% in 1983. Compared with male workers, the percentage of female workers with longer years of service is still relatively small, and this situation has led to two results, namely low participation rates in management and low levels of income.

The limited participation of women in management could be explained in relation to the length of service. In Japan, managers are usually promoted from within the company. The work of managerial staff is considered specific to each company and does not have general applicability. Companies expect their managers to have technical, human relations, and administrative skills. Having advanced technical skills alone is not considered enough for a manager supervising or guiding subordinates and managing things effectively in an organisation. Human relations skills and administrative skills are peculiar to each company. They are nurtured through substantial experience in the company. The number of jobs and departments with which a worker is familiar is considered important for internal promotion.

In this context female employees are different from male employees, because they are not always able to accept transfers to remote plants when required by the company, and until very recently, it was usual for many women workers to retire after marriage, making their length of service shorter.

## Future Perspective

### . New factors in the Society

An analysis of the recent status of the female work force in the light of personnel management has been made in the above section. Japanese society is now experiencing various changes some of which will affect this status. The main factors are diversification of the female work force itself, changes in industrial structure, and the enactment of laws concerning equal employment opportunities.

We now see new trends within the female work force, such as higher educational achievement, an increase in average age, and longer service in all sectors of the economy. The extended life expectancy gives women more potentially productive years after completing the rearing of children. Women's work ability and employment opportunities have also been enhanced, so that many women now have an interest in serving a company longer and pursuing a career. It is no longer possible to consider female workers as a uniform group.

As in other countries, Japanese industry is shifting more to the tertiary sector. Diversification of consumer demands and increased needs for services create new areas where women workers can play an active role. New technology will also influence the employment of women in the manufacturing sector where robotisation makes some of the heavier types of work more suitable for female workers. In offices, the introduction of computers simplifies work on one hand, but creates more complicated and advanced jobs on the other. Simplification makes it possible to employ someone with short-term training, in a standardised accounting office for instance, whereas formerly specialised training would have been required. However, this trend does have a disadvantage. If micro-electronic technology contributes to a decrease in the amount of manual work, it may also lead to a reduction of female workers. Computerisation also creates new complex jobs with higher levels of skill. Systems engineering and programming will provide new job opportunities for female workers. Indeed, the speed at which technology is changing seems too rapid, and companies cannot cope using only labour available in the internal labour market.

Another factor is the Equal Employment Opportunity Law which came into effect on 1 April 1986. This law stipulates equal treatment for both men and women in all phases of employment, from recruitment to retirement. Under this law, employers are prohibited from discriminating against women workers on the basis of sex in education and training, welfare benefits, or retirement. Employers are also obliged to make efforts to provide equal opportunities in recruitment, assignment, and promotion.

### . Promising Areas for Women's Employment

In such circumstances, expansion of job opportunities for female workers will be seen in the following areas:

- Areas newly created by structural change within industry with totally inadequate work force, e.g. computer-related technical occupations.

- Areas which have been male-dominated. In order to satisfy labour needs and to deal with ever-increasing competition, companies require workers with different points of view and ways of thinking.

- Areas where women can further their specialities, e.g. in the fields of industrial design and research, marketing research, and sales.

- Occupations at the managerial level.

## Measures Taken by Companies

Considering the pressures which Japanese society is now facing, companies seriously need the effective participation of women workers. Policies concerning women workers should be reconsidered in the context of the total management strategy of companies. It is no longer advisable to have a single standardised employment policy for women workers or to treat them as a homogeneous group. So far as education and training is concerned, training opportunities need to be closely linked with each individual's ability and career aspirations. Companies may need to provide several kinds of training programme for different types of women workers, and additional training, other than basic routine training, may need to be provided based on workers' voluntary participation.

Furthermore, companies may need to take more active initiative in fostering special qualities and abilities of female workers. To meet the demands of the changing society, female workers can put their talents to full use in areas such as planning, R & D, public relations, administration and management, etc. Several companies have already benefitted from motivating their female workers.

The Japan Federation of Employers' Association (Nikkeiren) is now advocating "multi-track personnel management" as a new guiding principle for future personnel management, substituting this principle for the traditional uniform male-centered policy. The basic concept is to treat employees as individuals according to their abilities. Female workers are no longer considered to present serious problems. Some serve a company for a very short-time until their marriage or child-birth; some leave a company for this reason, but want to be re-employed after the childcare period. Others work until retirement age. Given the existence of such diversity, multi-track personnel management aims to give satisfaction to all types of workers.

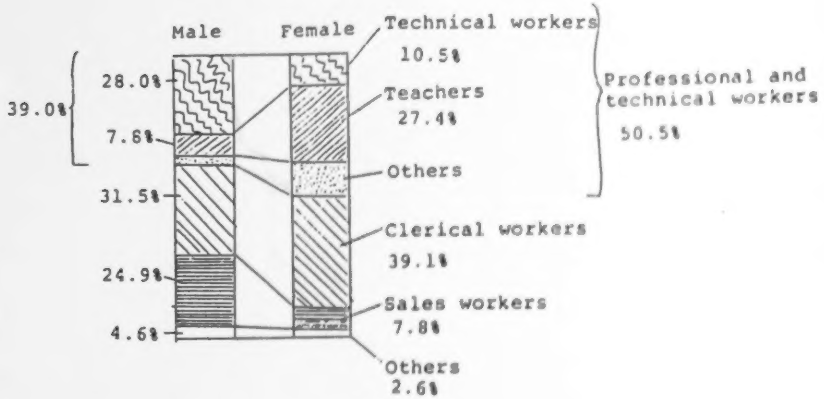
Since the values of male workers are changing and becoming diversified, they no longer want to follow a single uniform track of promotion within a company. Companies will have to change in personnel management policies to meet that situation as well.

Under a "multi-track personnel management" policy, a company may establish several courses for its employees and provide training and education programmes for each. The choice of a course, or transfer from one course to another, is determined by the desires of the concerned employee and the needs of the company. Criteria for choosing courses would be job content, the possibility of transfer to other regions, working hours, and workers' aims and abilities.

Personnel management, by emphasising an individual worker's ability, may provide a solution to the problem of expansion of female occupations and training in the context of present circumstances.

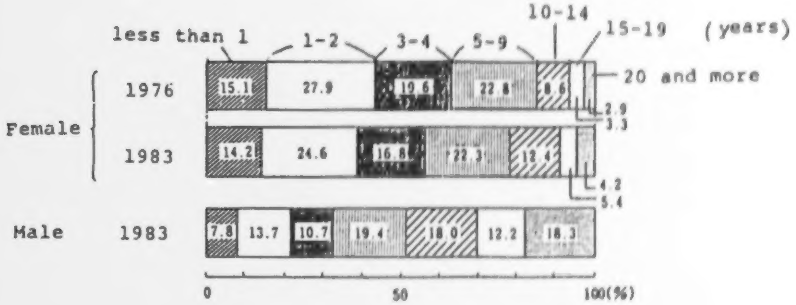
Figure 1, Occupational distribution of college/university leavers

(March 1985)



Source: Ministry of Education, Basic Statistical Survey on School.

Figure 2 Distribution of workers classified by the length of services



Source: Ministry of Labour, Basic Survey on Wage Structure.

# SUMMARY OF PAPER PRESENTED BY EMPLOYERS' REPRESENTATIVE PHILIPPINES

**Ancheta K. Tan, Governor**
**Employers' Confederation of the Philippines**
**Manila**

In the Philippines, as in many other countries, there remain today vestiges of tradition which in the past had limited the options available to women, particularly in the area of productive employment. Recognition of this problem has prompted the government of the Philippines to pay special attention to the problems of women workers. This concern has already resulted in significant reforms in labour policy designed to insure equal opportunities for both sexes in training and employment.

The 1935 Constitution of the Philippines embodied a policy of special protection for women. It provided: "The State shall afford protection to labour especially working women and minors (Article XIV, Sec. 6). From this provision it can be gleaned that the framers of the old constitution saw women as a special group of workers in need of state protection because of different physiological make-up incidental to their child-bearing functions.

Consequent to this constitutional provision, the legal enactment known as the Women and Child labour (R.A. 679) prescribed standards for the employment of women which, in practice, became impediments to the achievement by women of equal rights and opportunities. Among the provisions which worked as disincentives to the employment of women were:

- Maternity leave with pay for six weeks before and eight weeks after delivery or miscarriage at the rate of not less than 60 percent of the average weekly pay.

- Nursery facilities for children up to two years old under the charge of a nurse or midwife whenever there are 15 married women in the establishment.

- At least half an hour twice a day given to mothers to nurse their babies.

- Prohibiting employers from making women employees work continuously on their feet or lift heavy objects.

As may be seen from these examples of protective labour provisions, employers must provide special facilities such as nurseries, seats for women, nursing rooms, allocate resources for hiring nurses or midwives, and pay for maternity leave of up to three and a half months. Thus, to avoid the extra costs, employers adopted hiring policies which gave preference to men. In spite of good intentions, this kind of protective legislation detrimental to the employment interests of women.

The 1973 Constitution, as well as the recently formulated Constitution, embodies provisions which, while protecting women against safety and health hazards, do not jeopardise their chances of employment.

Articles XIII, Sec. 3 of the new constitution states that: "The State shall afford full protection to labour, local and overseas, organised and unorganised, and promote full employment and equality of employment opportunities for all".

Section 14 of the same Article provides that "The State shall protect working women by providing safe and healthy conditions, taking into account their maternal functions, and provide such facilities and opportunities that will enhance their welfare and enable them to realise their full potential in the service of the nation."

Among the important amendments in the Labour Code which remove the policy biases against women are the following:

- Maternity leave is shortened from six weeks before and eight weeks after delivery to two weeks before and four weeks after normal delivery or abortion with full pay and not just 60 percent of the regular or average weekly wage;

- Maternity leave privileges are not limited to the first four deliveries to harmonise the code with the family planning programme of the government;

- The setting up of special facilities for women, like seats, separate lavatories, and nurseries is no longer imposed indiscriminately but is left to the discretion of the Ministry of Labour;

- The code likewise seeks to put an end to discriminatory practices against woman employees with respect to terms and conditions of employment. Employers cannot discriminate against, or terminate the employment of a woman merely on account of her marriage or because of pregnancy;

- The code expressly guarantees equal remuneration to both men and women for work of equal value.

The Labour Code's provisions reduce protective measures in order to deny employers excuses for discriminating against women in terms of conditions of employment.

The new government's policy agenda for development declared a temporary moratorium on unrealistic non-monetary labour standards, e.g., the use of high technology safety gadgets and the night work prohibition on women. There will, however, always remain one sphere in which women will need protection, namely maternity. Often, this entails a heavy burden for employers and for the state, and there are still many who would wish, for selfish reasons, to reduce the protection that women really need in this area and in fields of occupational safety and health relating to the biological function of reproduction.

While labour laws have already recognised the unequal status of women in the Philippines and have promoted needed remedies, many of the problems are deeply rooted in values, traditions and customs which legislation alone cannot effectively change. Such deeply rooted values and traditions have also limited women's options for occupational diversification.

Filipino women have been traditionally regarded as the home-makers of the family. Their time is usually devoted to the care of the children, housework and household supervision. They have been considered as a secondary workforce because of the time available for them to participate actively in the paid labour force. The time allocation particularly for married women, to housework can be relieved if household members pursue a division of labour which is responsive to the needs of the family, considerate of the preferences and capabilities of its members. The extent of a woman's labour force of participation, as well as the type of work in which she is engaged, is therefore determined by the characteristics of the woman, the household division of labour and labour market demands.

Another hindrance to women's work diversification is occupational sex-role stereotyping. Men and women also choose occupations considered suitable for them. Because these tend to be determined and supported by men and society in general, women persist in their traditional occupational choices. The narrowness of the job market open to women and multiplicity of women's roles are constraints which should be taken into consideration in the administration of women's training and employment programmes. Coupled with this is the common grievance of women that they have a smaller share of administrative, managerial, and executive positions than men, due to the attribution of leadership and managerial qualities mainly to the latter.

Women's employment opportunities are further reduced by the belief among some employers that hiring women costs more. Since women are bound to have maternity leave and benefits, hiring women would require more investments in the form of providing more benefits and better working conditions. Added to these is the view that women are unable to assume jobs that might require physical exertion.

The largest proportion (40.94%) of the female labour force is employed in the service sector. Women are also found in manufacturing (16.86%) and in the wholesale and retail trades (15.37%). As can be expected, the sectors in which female employment is minimal are mining and quarrying (.12%) electricity, gas and water (.18%), and construction (.32%). This pattern is attributed to the hazards associated with work in these sectors. Meanwhile, the difficulty of women workers to gain positions involving decision-making is reflected in the extremely small proportion (6.61%) of women engaged in executive, administrative and managerial work.

This combination of facts conjures a paradoxical predicament for the Filipino women. While she is highly literate and educated, her occupational development remains marginal. There is an apparent mismatch between women's skills and the demands of development in such key areas as technology and engineering, areas in which Filipino women are known to be deficient. Filipino women have tended to go into traditionally female vocational training and to shy away from engineering and technology courses. A major development during the last decade was the doubling of the share of women clerical workers. This could be viewed as a reinforcement of the traditional occupations and roles of Filipino women, since clerical work is generally perceived as a female job.

The disadvantage of Filipino women in the employment field will most probably become more pronounced with recent developments, namely (a) the falling world market demand for export products which may result in a large number of women's being dislocated, since they are found mainly in the textile, garments, and electronic industries; (b) the worker displacement that is bound to occur as agricultural mechanisation is put into effect. However, the exodous of Filipino male workers abroad will provide opportunities for women to hold non-traditional jobs to replace the men in some industries.

While there have been no known organised initiatives taken by employers to diversify women's occupations, it is generally believed that there is no "sex-bias" as far as treatment of female workers are concerned. There is actually no impediment for women to engage in presently male-dominated fields of management, electronics, automative mechanics, etc. If in these areas women have not as yet gained equality with men it is because lack of qualifications and skills and women's own decisions not to avail of training and employment opportunities. This matter brings us back once again to the issue of women's traditional role as housewives and mothers which, hopefully, will gradually shift in our fast-changing society. It has been observed, for example, that the endorsement of idea of the working wife steadily grows as families become conscious of economic and financial considerations.

Obviously, the above observations suggest that if we are to consider using women as partners in national development, then there should be more efforts to direct women towards development-oriented education and training. Technological advances will require intensification and training for women if they are to be competitive in the labour market.

The educational distribution of unemployed women suggests that some 48 percent have low levels of education and lack vocational skills. The remaining 52 percent may be classified as semi-skilled or skilled. The configuration of unemployed women suggests that training opportunities would be needed by at least 220,000 women to enable them to find productive employment. More specifically, these women require basic skills training in order to be employed in industries.

Special emphasis must be given to the development of managerial skills, although limited training and employment opportunities present a major obstacle. As the Philippines moves towards industrialisation, the need for education and training becomes more pronounced, particularly in the rural areas, where most women are found. Non-formal system of education should be carried out with an emphasis on technical skills that have direct significance to the labour market needs and to easing unemployment and poverty.

Although training opportunities for Filipino women are not exactly wanting, there is much that could be done to broaden the reach of training programmes and to attract women to courses traditionally held by men. More often than not, sex does not put women into lower positions if they have training and ability equal to their male counterparts. The psychological impact of knowing that jobs are limited or unavailable and that they would have to compete with men discourages women from enrolling in training programmes, particularly in non-traditional areas. In addition, it is felt that women are often burdened by their role as wives and the guilt that accompanies their work if they are unable to take care of their children properly.

It is possible that this inequality might be eroded and the erosion further accelerated by strong government intervention to encourage women's entry into non-traditional occupations, with employers and employers organisations providing the necessary support.

Exploratory surveys on skills and training needs of women at enterprise level may be carried out by employers' organisations as resources allow.
Labour market information may be improved through the establishment of appropriate mechanisms, thereby ascertaining the demand for women workers. Broadening of training programmes of employers' organisations, as well as collaboration with government and trade unions, will facilitate the diversification of women's occupations.

Information campaigns could be undertaken with the following objectives:

- to minimise or eliminate unfavourable social attitudes and sex-role stereotypes;
- to support policies and measures designed to diversify women's occupations; and
- to awaken women's consciousness about the availability of non-traditional occupations.

In support of these, women's scholarship programmes could attract more women to agro-business, food production ventures, engineering, technology, etc.

Training schemes at enterprise level, such as those that promote women's dexterity in such crafts as woodcarving and carpentry, could be conducted through the assistance of appropriate training agencies. Complementing these should be women's leadership training programmes as well as programmes for women who plan to venture into self-employment.

ANNEX I

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## ANNEX II

### Opening Address by Mr. T. Iwata
### Director, ILO Tokyo Branch Office

Mr. Nakamura, Assistant Minister for International Labour Affairs,
Mr. Tsujino, Employer Member of the Governing Body of the ILO,
Mr. Tanaka, Worker Member of the Governing Body of the ILO,
distinguished guests, dear participants, ladies and gentlemen,

It is my great pleasure to see you all meeting together this morning to start the discussions on the subject of diversification of women's training and employment in selected Asian countries which is one of the ILO's major concerns, not only in this region but also globally. In opening this seminar, I should like to express my sincere gratitude to the Ministry of Labour, for its generosity in kindly providing the funds for the seminar as well as hosting it.

As you may recall, the "Declaration on Equality of Opportunity and Treatment for Women Workers" and a "Resolution Concerning a Plan of Action" was adopted by the International Labour Conference in 1975. These were in line with the priorities set for the United Nations Women's Decade. Later, in 1981, the ILO Conference adopted the Convention on "Workers with Family Responsibilities" (No. 156), recognising family responsibilities as one of the major obstacles for increased participation of women in the labour force. Moreover, renewed impetus was given to the organisations' efforts in this regard, with the adoption of the "Resolution on Equal Opportunities and Equal Treatment for Men and Women in Employment" at the 71st session of the International Labour Conference in June 1985.

In adopting the resolution, the Conference requested the ILO to undertake action through various ways and means, including technical co-operation with special emphasis on women workers, in order to improve their status and conditions of work both in urban and rural areas. In particular, the importance of exchanging information and experiences among developing countries was stressed in this regard.

In this context, the Director-General in his report to the ILO Asian Regional Conference held at Jakarta, in December 1985, pointed out the special importance of the subject of "Diversification of Women's Training and Employment in a Wider Range of Occupations at High Skill-levels, Responsibility and Pay", as one of the important points to which ILO's action in favour of women workers should be directed.

As described in the report, despite their increasing numbers, most of the women workers in Asia are still mainly engaged in subsistence level agriculture. Moreover, their employment status in other sectors could be described as unstable because of their low-wage, temporary, part-time, and home-based contract work.

Fortunately, in Asia and the Pacific region, APSDEP is already playing an active role in training, and recently had a workshop on vocational training for advanced technology. I believe that the findings of the workshop will greatly contribute to the discussions of diversification of women's training and employment.

I hope that this seminar will also look at other issues which may cause obstacles to diversifying the training and employment of women. Problems of women's employment are deeply rooted in the cultural values, historical traditions, and social customs of each country. These, quite often, form the basis of de facto occupational segregation between male and female workers. In this respect, I should say that the role of governments may be of great importance in enhancing equal training and employment opportunities. At the same time, active support of workers and employers regarding this issue is also an essential ingredient for success.

Further, I would like to point out the importance of recognition on the part of employers of the fact that there are many competent and talented women workers in their enterprises. I am saying this from my own experience. However, it often happens that only traditionally accepted tasks are given to them on grounds that they are female. In Japan, it is called "wasted treasure", and this means indeed a great loss to management. Therefore, I wish that more training and job opportunities be given to competent women workers to challenge important tasks in various areas.

Last, but not least, I wish to stress the following point. I firmly believe that in order to obtain equal opportunities and treatment in employment, women must enhance their self-reliance. The will and endurance of women workers to challenge difficult tasks in severe competitive circumstances is essential.

In closing my speech, I sincerely hope that participants will have ample opportunity to exchange information and experiences on the issue in order to identify obstacles which limit women's employment options while seeking measures aimed at organising on-the-job training and diversifying employment opportunities.

Finally, I should like to quote a phrase from the preamble of the declaration adopted by the ILO Conference in 1975: "The position of women cannot be changed without also changing the role of men in society and in the family."

Thank you very much for your kind attention.

# ANNEX III

## Speech by Mr. T. Nakamura

**Assistant Minister for International Labour Affairs**
**Ministry of Labour, Japan**

Distinguished guests, participants of the seminar, officials of the International Labour Office, APSDEP, ARTEP, LAPTAP, other organisations, and governments,

It is a great honour and privilege for me to address you at the opening of the ILO/Japan Seminar on Diversification of Women's Training and Employment.

On behalf of the Ministry of Labour of Japan, I extend my warmest welcome to every participant, I would also like to pay my respect to the people concerned for their hard work in planning and, in the days to come, in implementing the seminar, especially Mrs. Mitchell, Mrs. Goodale, and your colleague from Bangkok, as well as Mr. Iwata and the staff of the Tokyo Branch Office of the ILO.

Recently, the female labour force has been increasing at a high rate all over the world, and women have begun to play important roles in every industry and occupation. More and more opportunities for females to use their abilities are vital, not only for the well-being of women, but also for the socio-economic development of respective countries.

During the United Nations Decade for Women, many activities for the advancement of women were organised at all levels, including international, national, local, and grass-roots, with the result that the status of women has prominently progressed all over the world. To solidify this achievement of the Decade, firm and steady efforts are now being made to further promote the advancement of women towards the year 2000.

On the other hand, the introduction of new technologies has brought about occupational restructuring and changes in the organisation of work, job content, and skills. These changes have also affected the expansion and improvement of women's employment.

In Japan, responding to an earnest call for the promotion of equal opportunity and treatment between men and women in employment, the Equal Employment Opportunity Law was approved and came into effect in April, 1986. Since then, in many companies, efforts have been made to revise and improve the personnel management policies for women including recruitment, hiring, vocational training, assignment, and promotion in accordance with this law.

I saw many women in Asia actually participating in the workforce, and I believe that this trend will further develop, fully utilising their abilities in the future. However, many problems in regard to employment of women are waiting to be solved. To cope with this situation, exchange of experiences among countries is of great use, and we realize demands for it are increasing.

Thus, at the opening session of the ILO/Japan Seminar on Diversification of Women's Training and Employment, I should say that the timing is just right, because this seminar is intended to offer an opportunity for governments and employers' and workers' organisations to collect information about the scope of work entailed in diversifying women's training and employment, and to obtain specific concrete examples of successful training programmes and related measures aimed at improving women's status in the labour market.

I hope that participants will make positive contributions to the success of the seminar and, later, make the most use of the knowledge obtained for the benefit of their countries.

In concluding I hope that participants enjoy their stay in Japan.

Thank you.

## Welcome Address by Mr. H. Tsujino
## Employer Member of the ILO Governing Body

Mrs. Goodale, Mrs. Mitchell, dear participants, ladies and gentlemen,

It is a great pleasure and privilege for me to join Messrs. Iwata and Nakamura in extending our welcome to all of you to Japan.

The objective of this seminar is to examine possibilities for diversifying women's training and employment opportunities. As regards the Japanese situation, a new regulation called the Equal Employment Opportunity Law came into effect last April. It may be said that a new era of personnel management has started, and we look forward to seeing new progress in Japan. I believe this seminar is a timely occasion to reflect upon of progress made and to search for further effective measures which closely correspond to each country's current situation and needs.

The subject to be dealt with in the seminar seems to be very broad and may require lengthy dialogue among participants. I see in your schedule that various stages of discussions have been programmed, and I hope you will be able to exchange fully your views and experiences in order to reach useful and interesting conclusions relevant to the problem.

I wish you every success and hope you will enjoy your stay in Tokyo. Thank you for your kind attention.

ANNEX V

## Message by Mr. Y. Tanaka
## Worker Member of the ILO Governing Body

Dear Participants, ILO Officials, Distinguished Guests, Ladies and Gentlemen,

First of all, I wish to express my gratitude at the opening today of the Seminar on Diversification of Women's Training and Employment which was made possible through the efforts of the ILO.

In Japan, the Equal Employment Opportunity Law was put into effect on 1st April this year, opening the way to more diversified employment opportunities for women. However, problems of women workers are not so simple that they can be solved by the enforcement of the law alone. Many difficulties and obstacles lie in the way of the improvement of occupational status of women. In this regard, we have to make steady efforts to overcome obstacles and build a society in which men and women can work under equal conditions. I believe this seminar is extremely significant and that it marks a milestone in achieving the goal of occupational equality between men and women.

I look forward to the findings and conclusions of this seminar through your sincere and active discussions. Moreover, I sincerely hope that societies which are relatively free from employment and occupational discriminations based on sex, race, colour of skin, religion, or political beliefs, as stated in ILO Convention No.111 will soon be at a reality.

In closing, I would like to thank the officials of the ILO Headquarters, Regional Office for Asia and the Pacific, and Tokyo Branch Office for their preparation of the seminar, and of course the Japanese Government for its financial support. I sincerely hope the seminar will be successful.

Thank of very much for your attention.

## ANNEX VI

### Programme for Seminar on Diversification of Women's Training and Employment
### (Tokyo, 8-12 December 1986)

| 8 Dec (Mon) | 9 Dec (Tue) | 10 Dec (Wed) | 11 Dec (Thu) | 12 Dec (Fri) |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| 08:15-09:00<br>Registration | | | 08:40<br>Meet in the lobby<br>08:45<br>Bus leaves for Field Visit<br>10:00-11:45<br>Field Visit:<br>Akabane Advanced Vocational Training Center<br>12:00<br>Bus leaves Center<br>13:00<br>Bus returns to Korakuen Kaikan | |
| 09:00-09:45<br>Opening Ceremony<br>09:45-10:30<br>Introductory Session | 09:00-10:30<br>Country Reports & Case Studies<br>Japan, Korea | 09:00-12:30<br>Group Work I :<br>Identification of Priority Areas for Action | | 09:00-10:30<br>Concluding Session:<br>Presentation of the Findings & Seminar Report |
| Coffee Break | | | | Coffee Break |
| 11:00-12:00<br>Introduction:<br>Diversification of Women's Occupations<br>(ILO ROAP) | 11:00-12:30<br>Country Reports & Case Studies<br>Malaysia, Philippines | | | 11:00-12:00<br>Closing Ceremony |
| Lunch Break | | | | |
| 14:00-14:45<br>Employment Diversification of Women in Asian Countries: An Assessment<br>(ARTEP) | 13:45-15:30<br>Country Reports & Case Studies<br>Thailand, India, Indonesia | 14:00-18:00<br>Group Work II :<br>Measures for Action | Lunch break | |
| 14:45-15:15<br>Family Related Responsibilities of Women and Diversification of Training and Employment<br>(LAPTAP) | Coffee Break | | 14:00-15:30<br>Discussion on Field Visit | |
| Coffee Break | 16:00-17:00<br>Workers' Panel:<br>The Role of Workers' Organisations | | Coffee Break | |
| 15:45-16:30<br>Diversification of women's Training in Asia<br>(APSDEP) | 17:00-18:00<br>Employer's Panel:<br>The Role of Employers' Organisations | | 16:00-17:30<br>Presentation of Group Work Results | |
| 16:30-17:00<br>Experience of Selected Industrialised Countries from Other Regions<br>(ILO, HQ) | | | | |
| 18:00-20:00<br>Joint Reception hosted by ILO and Ministry of Labour, Japan | | | | |

ILO ROAP: Regional Office for Asia & Pacific

ARTEP: The Asian Regional Team for Employment Promotion

LAPTAP: The Labour and Population Team for Asia and the Pacific

APSDEP: The Asian and Pacific Skill Development Programme

ILO,HQ: ILO Headquarters